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METHODS OF TEACHING MODERN LANGUAGES

By
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Foreign-language study in the schools of the United States is not receiving its due share of attention, and as a consequence Americans rank low as linguists when compared with European peoples. In this book are presented numerous forceful reasons why the study of French, Spanish, and German, as well as other modern languages, is of prime importance, together with comprehensive recommendations as to the most-approved methods to follow. The author is an educator of long experience and a thoroughgoing student well qualified to discuss in authoritative fashion this vital subject. The publishers welcome the opportunity of transmitting to the American school public the results of Dr. Handschin's researches and of conveying a message certain to bear important results

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FOREWORD

I WISH to thank the following persons for help in the preparation of this work: My wife, for general aid; Professors E. W. Bagster-Collins of Teachers College, New York City, J. P. W. Crawford of the University of Pennsylvania, Starr Willard Cutting of the University of Chicago, A. R. Hohlfeld of the University of Wisconsin, J. P. Hoskins of Princeton University, and W. R. Price of the State Department of Education, Albany, New York, for reading certain portions of the manuscript or proof; and Mr. E. A. Bryant of the World Book Company for careful editorial work.

C. H. H.

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METHODS OF TEACHING MODERN LANGUAGES

INTRODUCTORY

We have in the United States made progress in the teaching of modern languages to the point where we feel the need of taking stock and of considering our future course. This was done as to methods by the Committee of Twelve of the Modern Language Association and the National Education Association in 1898,[1] and for the history, statistics, and bibliography, and, in less degree, for the methods also in 1912.[2]

An event of prime importance was the founding in 1916 of the *Modern Language Journal.* This national journal, the need of which had long been felt, was finally made possible by the coöperation of the various modern-language associations of the country, which joined forces and formed the National Federation of Modern Language Teachers. The National Federation, together with its constituent state and regional associations, is important also, in that it touches thousands upon thousands of teachers through local, state, and regional meetings and in other ways.[3] An event of importance, also, was the founding of the American Association of Teachers of Spanish, with its organ *Hispania*, a quarterly pedagogic journal which began publication in November, 1917. However, modern-language teachers in general hope that this movement may in time become merged with the National Federation.

Another sign of promise is seen in the changed attitude of modern-language departments toward the theory of teaching. A decade ago scant attention was paid to pedagogics. Today the future teacher is given not only a knowledge of his subject but an interest in the problems of teaching as well. This has tended, also, to increase his interest in his pupils. For this stimulus we are indebted largely to the study of education in our universities and colleges.

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[1] *Report of the Committee of Twelve of the Modern Language Association of America.* D. C. Heath & Co., Boston.

[2] Handschin, C. H., *The Teaching of Modern Languages in the United States.* Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C., 1913. 157 pages.

[3] One must not confuse the Modern Language Association of America, composed mostly of college and university professors and devoted to research in literature and philology, with the National Federation of Modern Language Teachers, composed principally of high-school and college teachers and devoted to problems of teaching.

There has come about, also, a hearty coöperation between the departments of education and the departments of modern languages. This does not mean that the training of modern-language teachers should be turned over to the department of education, as some overzealous educationists seem to desire. The courses in psychology and general method are very properly given in the department of education; the course in supervised observation and practice-teaching must certainly be given coöperatively by the two departments; while the course in special method and phonetics should certainly be given in the departments of modern language; for we recognize assuredly that however important the theory and practice of teaching is, getting the subject matter is more important. For one thing, it requires a much greater amount of the learner's time and energy. Moreover, in every large department of modern language we find today one or more teachers who have had special training in problems of teaching and are especially interested in them.

However warmly, therefore, we welcome the coöperation and guidance of the departments of education in matters of general method, we should regard any tendency to require of teaching candidates an inordinate number of hours for purely educational courses as inimical to the best interests of teaching. But all of us, of whatever department, must surely have come to the conclusion that the secondary-school teacher should be primarily a teacher; that he should not need to do research in order to stand well; and that he should be given every opportunity to be a whole-souled teacher. For one endowed with great strength and an unfailing bent toward original studies, research may still remain a proper goal. But time and strength should not be gained at the expense of good teaching. As a rule, a teacher's researches will tend to follow the lines of his teaching and his scholarly needs rather than remote problems.

THE VALUES OF MODERN-LANGUAGE STUDY

It may be well here to enumerate in brief under the following ten headings the values of modern-language study:

1. Language study — especially study of the mother tongue, but also study of a foreign language — aids in acquiring the ability to do purposive or abstract thinking.

Language study is not receiving its due in the United States. This has resulted from a misconception of its value as a factor in education. Our common complaint is that our pupils cannot think, but language is the greatest single aid to thinking. This may be shown by deduction, as follows: Abstract thinking is impossible in many instances without a command of language; i.e., without the proper terms. An uneducated man cannot reason abstractly, since his linguistic ability has throughout life been so rudimentary that he has never learned to employ conceptual thought; nor can he, consequently, follow the abstract reasoning of others. An idea is made up of (1) a mental image and (2) its meaning. The mental image may be in the form of recollection of a sight, a sound, a feeling, or a muscular effort; but if the idea is an abstract one its image comes only in the form of a symbol — e.g., ∞; a number — e.g., III; or a word or phrase — e.g., "the synthesis of essentials." To be brief, therefore, words alone in the vast majority of cases make abstract thought possible.

Abstract thinking, however, is indispensable to the advancement of the world. Bodily adjustments, manipulations, thinking in the concrete can never do this. New advances in human thought come only when abstract reasoning is employed. There are two kinds of reasoning: associative and abstract. Associative reasoning consists of ideas floating through the mind, entraining one another by reason of some real or fanciful likeness or analogy. Thinking of this sort does not get beyond reasoning by analogy; that is, supposing that the case or situation is analogous to another which is remembered. These associative ideas come into the mind in concrete wholes; hence this thinking never gets beyond the concrete and, moreover, commonly leads only to faulty inference, since in order to determine whether a case is really identical with a remembered one, one needs to abstract the accidental attributes of the two and then to recombine the essential attributes of the two into a new idea. Abstract reasoning is this analysis of the concrete cases and a synthesis of the typical essentials into a new concept. By reason of repeated analyses and syntheses of this kind, a new type of conceptual thinking comes to take the place of the more common associative thinking.

Again, percepts, based as they are on sense, come to the mind clear. An idea-image, however, is not so clear as a percept. Ordinarily, unless a word for it is in the mind, it cannot be expressed at all. Speech is part of the thought-stuff which goes floating through the mind during all our waking hours and indeed even in dreams. Clear thoughts float only in this linguistic medium. To use a simple illustration: The sensation of an earthquake gave to the savage merely the feeling of fear. When, however, some one said, "The earth shook," that was the first step toward the rational understanding of the phenomenon. No doubt the slow progress of human thought in early ages was due to lack of means of expression.

For the world to advance we need new thought. But thought implies mental images. Such images come at best imperfectly, without words to convey them. By imparting systematically the means of expressing thought, you impart the ability to think. Logic aids in detecting faulty statement; a study of thought and the organization of human knowledge is still more useful than logic; but the greatest aid to thinking is linguistic ability.

The curricula of our schools are undergoing great change in favor of utilitarian branches whose training consists chiefly of manipulations and bodily adjustments. Can these take the place of language study as instruments for training in thinking? It is high time that not only the public but our educationists recognize that they cannot.

2. The study of French, German, or Spanish yields the power to read French, German, or Spanish. Reading is the objective of this instruction in the United States. One hundred per cent of the pupils studying these languages need to learn to read them.

3. The study of French, German, or Spanish literature yields a comprehension of and a power to interpret and to use the facts of history, life, institutions, art, religion, and politics of a foreign nation, which is not gained by historical study or by the study of translations merely. No nation has a monopoly of all the abilities, good traits of character, or monuments of culture and industry. The very generally admitted basal traits of the various European peoples should be our warrant for teaching their institutions. The political colonizing genius of the English; the industrious democracy of the French, their steady, honest thrift, their love and cultivation of the beautiful, are ideals of the highest moment for us. Their language was at one time the educated man's language, later the language of fine society, and later still, the language of diplomacy. We need it for its clarity and form. The scientific thoroughness of the Germans, their efficient ways of

doing, their wealth of folklore, love of nature, honesty, and industry, are invaluable to us. Their language was the language of the most recent classicism in the world's literature, and is the language of modern philosophy. It is fully inflected and hence uniquely disciplinary for our children, accustomed only to our uninflected language. Moreover, it is a tongue germane to our own, and hence doubly valuable to the American in that it aids in enriching and objectivating both vocabulary and construction of his native speech. Spanish we need for commercial and political reasons, if for no other. To the young aspiring democracy of our South American sister republics we are bound by various ties, and these are certain to become still more intimate as cultural and political events march on. Spanish was the language of the undying works of the Spanish dramatists and romancers, and is today the language, to some extent, of our own island possessions as well as of the South American nations.

Shall we adopt the narrow chauvinistic attitude which asserts that we need not learn from any of these Europeans or from the South Americans, and that we are superior to all of them in everything? Far from agreeing with those who think that we are spending too much time on languages, we believe that the European curriculum with its greater amounts of foreign modern language is the better one. The following quotation from the most recent British report on this subject reflects the European attitude and may illustrate how European countries look upon the question of modern-language instruction: "For public service and for business — and we must once more emphasize the national concern in the prosperity of private business — we need clerks, travelers, foreign agents, directors and managers of firms, and administrators, each group possessing according to its functions adequate knowledge of foreign languages, foreign countries, and foreign peoples. To produce these we need improved instruction, and improved instruction is only possible by the provision of more highly competent teachers for secondary schools, evening schools, and day continuation schools."[1]

4. The study of French, German, or Spanish yields the ability to understand the spoken language and to speak it.

To be sure, much of our effort has in the past been wasted because of poor teachers, poor organization, and too many languages but not enough language for the individual student. But we are correcting these matters, and in part they have been corrected. The individual student must undertake fewer languages but must secure mastery in those undertaken; and courses must be lengthened for those who are really to achieve mastery. But such reforms will not be effective unless we get the proper teacher-training, and unless we as a nation get the proper attitude toward learning and speaking the languages of other peoples.

We may learn a lesson in this from England. She, like ancient Greece, refused steadily to learn the languages of those with whom she wished to hold relations of trade and intercourse, with the result that she found herself in recent times steadily losing trade. Now the attitude in England has changed; and languages are being studied enthusiastically and with a view to their use-value as well as to their cultural value. Instead of being among the poorest linguists in Europe, the English may now hope to equal the Germans, even if they may not hope to catch up with the polyglot Russians.[2] The French were formerly rated as poor linguists, partly, no doubt, because, their language being accepted as the language of diplomacy, they had the less need of learning foreign languages. But in recent times they have installed an excellent system of modern-language instruction, with most gratifying results both in prestige and in trade. Where shall we Americans be rated as linguists? At present we are, no doubt, at the very bottom of the scale.

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[1] *Modern Studies, Being the Report of the Committee on the Position of Modern Languages in the Educational System of Great Britain.* His Majesty's Stationery Office, London, 1918. 258 pages.

[2] As to how English evaluate the linguistic ability of various European nations, see the British report quoted above, page 25, *passim.*

5. The study of French, German, or Spanish yields the ability to write the language. While, practically, achievement in writing is of little value, writing is very valuable for reenforcing the work in reading and speaking and for its general disciplinary effects.

6. The study of French, German, or Spanish yields a better comprehension of and power to use English grammar, including syntax.

It has long been accepted that translation is the great factor in the improvement of the student's English. This was, no doubt, true for the time when translation was the chief exercise. Today it is hardly so. Translating is being done less and less. Promise is seen, however, in the fact that when it is done it is in advanced classes as fine translating, as an exercise in style rather than a test of the pupil's understanding of the text. Today the gain for the pupil's English probably comes primarily from his comparative study of English grammar, and the foreign grammar, which, since his knowledge of English grammar is notoriously poor when he reaches adolescence, gives him his first real hold on the elementary facts of grammar.[1] The knowledge that he refuses to acquire in his course in English grammar he is obliged to acquire in his modern-language course.

7. The study of French, German, or Spanish yields a better comprehension of and a better ability to use English words. Over half of our English words come from Latin, Romance,

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[1] For proof of the advantage accruing to the pupil's knowledge of English through the study of a foreign language see Starch, D., *School Review*, 23: 697–703, 25: 243–248.

and other sources; the rest are Germanic. This value has been attested by many of our most eminent men, and this philological side of language teaching is being done better today than ever before.

8. The study of French, German, or Spanish yields the ability to use the language as a tool for the prosecution of other studies in high school, college, and university.

That such ability gives the modern-language student an advantage over others, even in high school, is patent. In college, and especially in the university, this ability is invaluable.

9. The study of French, German, or Spanish yields the ability to interpret foreign abbreviations, phrases, and quotations used in English.

10. The study of French, German, or Spanish in common with other cumulative subjects, if well taught, yields general habits and ideals of the greatest value; e.g., the habit of hard and sustained application, systematic work, accuracy, and scholarly activity.

THE PROPOSED INVESTIGATION OF VALUES

The problem of investigating the values of modern-language study scientifically can hardly be said to have been seriously undertaken. We have only the bare beginnings of such study. But this is the problem of problems before modern-language teachers. On the basis of practical experience we have assumed certain values. The problem now is to measure the actual results of teaching in order to establish or disprove these. If the value is real, it can be measured; if it cannot, we should question its existence.

We assume certain values, therefore, on the basis of experience, of classroom tests, and, to a slight extent, of experiments. But the question arises: Are these proper aims or values? The answer is that our investigation must settle the validity of the aims as well as their relative importance. These can be established only by showing the degree to which the values actually function during the school life and the after life of the student and the percentage of the students for whom a given aim is a proper aim.

We shall need next a scheme of criteria according to which we may investigate each value. Further, it will be necessary to suggest the means whereby to measure such values if they are being realized; and if they are not being realized, the means whereby this may be accomplished.

As such a list of criteria the following are suggested: (1) Is it a proper aim? (2) For what percentage of the pupils is it a proper aim? (3) Is it being realized under the present conditions, and, if so, to what degree? (Norms of achievement.) (4) If it is being realized, is this taking place incidentally (automatic transfer)? Or (5) what purposely used means are yielding the value? (6) If it is not being realized, how can it be? (7) Is it being achieved as a permanent value?

THE VALUES

I. The study of French, German, or Spanish is an important aid in inducing good habits of thinking. (1)[1] Yes. (2) For all. (3) Achievement tests will need to be constructed and tests made with numbers of French, German, or Spanish pupils and numbers of pupils not studying foreign languages to determine on the basis of actual results how large this value is. (4) It should be set up as a conscious aim wherever it is not so set up at present. (5) Answer identical with (5) under Value II. (6) Answer identical with (6) under Value II. (7) In the questionnaire under Value II there should be these questions: Do you think that your study of French,

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[1] The question will not be repeated in each case. The numeral refers to its number in the foregoing list and will serve to identify it.

German, or Spanish improved your power to think? Did it help temporarily or permanently, or both?

II. The study of French, German, or Spanish yields the power to read French, German, or Spanish. (1) On this question there is no disagreement as far as concerns regular school courses. (2) For 100 per cent (?). (3) Achievement tests will need to be constructed and considerable numbers of pupils in representative schools tested as to their ability to read and get the meaning. Norms will need to be established for each semester of a four years' course. (4) It is being purposely aimed at. (5) As to the means used it will be necessary to investigate the teaching of teachers whose classes score highest in the tests and to tabulate carefully the means used, the material, the amounts of the same, and the procedures by which taught and assimilated. A statement of these composite means will constitute the standard. (6) It is known that this value is being realized. In cases where it is not, the statement of the composite means mentioned under (5) above will constitute the remedial prescription. (7) To ascertain this, a questionnaire should be sent to graduates of high schools and colleges in order to learn what percentage of them do (*a*) read in the original, or in translation, works of the literature in question and to what extent. (*b*) If they do this, to what do they attribute the stimulus to do so? (*c*) If they do not, what in their opinion would help to secure this permanent value?

III. The study of French, German, or Spanish literature yields a comprehension of and a power to interpret and to use the facts of the history, life, institutions, art, religion, and politics of the foreign nation which is not gained by historical study or by the study of translations merely. (1) This is considered a proper aim (?). (2) Should it not be considered a proper aim for 100 per cent, since it is of importance for a nation to have such knowledge and ability disseminated among its citizens? It is valuable for the citizen in the prosecution of his business — importing, exporting, dealing with citizens of foreign extraction and with the nationals of the foreign nation; it is important in the interests of wise legislation — national, state, and municipal — and hence for the voter also, and finally it is important for the individual's general educational and cultural outlook. (3) Here tests must be devised to measure present achievement in this value. Suggestions as to such tests: A test calling for such knowledge and ability must be administered to considerable numbers of modern-language and of non-modern-language pupils who have had a course in the history of the nation whose language is being studied and the difference in achievement established. Care must be taken to secure classes of equal ability, chosen on the basis of intelligence tests and general school marks, or correction must be made to equalize the difference. The scores made in these tests by the modern-language pupils will at the same time constitute the norms of achievement in this test for such classes. (4) How far this knowledge is the result of purposeful effort or of automatic transfer can be shown by testing classes in which it is made a conscious aim and other classes in which it is not. A comparison of the scores made will express the relative value of the two methods. (5) Answer identical with (5) under Value II. (6) Answer identical with (6) under Value II. (7) Answer identical with (7) under Value II, except that an additional question of the questionnaire should read: What use of the facts of history, life, and institutions do you make?

Suggestion as to the test for ascertaining how far this value has been achieved: The material composing the test will best be taken from the so-called *realia* books, although general literature must be included, especially in making tests for advanced courses.

IV. The study of French, German, or Spanish yields the ability to understand the spoken language and to speak it. (1) It is a proper aim for a certain percentage of the pupils — to be established by the investigation. Understanding may be a proper aim for more pupils than is speaking. However, for practical purposes we may here discuss the two aims, understanding and speaking, together. (2) To establish this it will be necessary to include in the questionnaire addressed to graduates a question relative to the actual use of this value in later life. However, the decision reached in the matter cannot be allowed to rest solely or even chiefly on the amount of permanent use made of understanding and speaking the language; since, aside from such permanent use, exercises in understanding and speaking are, it is believed, necessary to teach reading most speedily and effectively. This latter point, however, has never been proved. It will be necessary to do this. Suggestions for tests to do so: At the end of the first, second, and third year of high-school French, German, or Spanish, measure the ability to read in classes which have been taught to translate merely, and of classes which have been taught by direct method. The ordinary achievement test will serve for this, since the questions on content are to be answered in English. The rate-of-reading score also will be useful. If the results prove that translation classes do as well or better in the reading, then speaking will cease to be an aim except in so far as a certain percentage of students, according to our questionnaire returns, do make permanent use of this understanding-speaking value. (3) To learn this, it will be necessary to construct tests of ability in understanding the foreign language. A test of this kind should be a group test, the questions to be read to the class in a prescribed way, the answers to be in English and in writing. Test II of the Handschin Predetermination Test may serve as a model here, except that each answer must be not a translation but a reasoned answer to the question or problem set in French, German, or Spanish. There should be tests for the various semesters, and finally norms for the various semesters.

Further, a speaking test will have to be devised. This will necessarily be administered individually. Suggestions for such a test: Question and answer form is best. Questions and answers to alternate. Questions to call for a reasoned answer. There must be a test for each year — first, second, third, and fourth. This test, like all others suggested, must be standardized; i.e., norms for each year or semester must be established.

(4) This is, of course, a conscious aim, not an automatic by-product. (5) Answer identical with that under (5), Value II. (6) Answer identical with that under (6), Value II. (7) The questionnaire to graduates to include as a further question the following: What use have you made and are you making of the ability to understand and to speak French, German, or Spanish? If the value is not being achieved permanently but seems desirable to the graduates, the question arises how it might be achieved. The answer is that presumably the means which insured success during the four years at high school would do so permanently if this were raised to the plane of a conscious ideal frequently during the school course. At all events it will be impossible to go back and investigate in detail the teaching which these old graduates enjoyed years ago. The prescription then will presumably be to use the means which according to our investigation are proving themselves most valuable in our present-day practice, but to emphasize and to raise to the plane of an ideal this permanent use of the value.

V. The study of French, German, or Spanish yields the ability to write the language. (1) This is a proper aim within a limited scope, and is to be established by the investigation. (2) As a direct aim it is practically limited in value to future modern-language teachers and business correspondents. It may not prove difficult to express this number in percentages, since the number of commercial correspondents and teachers of modern languages who went forth from certain classes of modern-language students can be ascertained.

However, writing must certainly be considered primarily not an aim in itself, but rather an auxiliary to the means used in teaching reading. To test its value in this regard, considerable numbers of French, German, or Spanish classes in which no writing was done should be tested as to their ability to read, and the scores thus obtained should be compared with the scores made in the same test by classes in which writing was done. (3) Tests for measuring ability in writing will be necessary, and norms for the various semesters will need to be established. (4) It is, of course, a direct aim. (5) Answer identical with (5) under Value II. (6) Answer identical with (6) under Value II. (7) The questionnaire to graduates will need to include a question concerning the permanent use of the ability to write.

VI. The study of French, German, or Spanish yields a better comprehension of and power to use the facts of English grammar, including syntax. (1) Yes. (2) For 100 per cent, since all need such ability and our high-school pupils are notably deficient in their grasp of English grammar(?). (3) Starch's tests have shown this value. Similar tests should be applied to greater numbers in various parts of the country and norms for such ability established. Some of the standardized tests for measuring ability in English grammar and composition may prove useful here. (4) Tests mentioned under (3) above, if applied to classes in which this value was an aim and to other classes in which it was not, will answer the question. (5) Answer identical with that in (5), Value II. (6) Answer identical with that in (6), Value II. (7) The questionnaire to graduates will need to include as a further question the following: Does knowledge and ability obtained in French, German, or Spanish classes aid you in your English grammar, including syntax?

Suggestion. A study should be made to ascertain what facts of French, German, or Spanish accidence and syntax can be applied to teaching English, and what correlation is possible and desirable as between the teaching of French, German, or Spanish and the teaching of English.

VII. The study of French, German, or Spanish yields a better comprehension of and a better ability to use English words. (1) It is a proper aim, as is generally agreed (?). (2) For 100 per cent (?). (3) A test to measure this ability, — norms to be established for each year. The same test to be applied to non-French, non-German, or non-Spanish classes. Comparison of the results to establish the value or to disprove its existence. (4) Get statements of the teachers of classes tested as to whether it was a conscious aim or not. (5) Answer identical with that in (5), Value II. (6) Answer identical with that in (6), Value II. (7) The questionnaire to graduates will need to include the further question: Do knowledge and ability obtained in French, German, or Spanish classes yield a better comprehension and ability to use English words?

Note. This experiment will also show the relative efficacy of French, German, or Spanish for imparting this value.

Suggestion. Set up an investigation to establish a list of French, German, or Spanish words which are most useful in imparting this value; that is, presumably, the words which have the greatest number of derivatives in English, or words identical in form or meaning, or both, in English and French, German, or Spanish, or words slightly changed in form or meaning, or both, in English. Also a list of prefixes and suffixes of French, German, or Spanish which are most helpful in interpreting English derivatives from the language.

This question of the French, German, or Spanish words most useful to impart this value raises the question of the words most useful in imparting ability to read the language itself.

Hence, in addition to the words which must be included in our first, second, third, and fourth year vocabulary in French, German, or Spanish on account of their value to aid in interpreting English words, we must choose words which are most useful in reading the foreign language. These words will be found to be those which are most frequently used in colloquial language (if colloquial use is the aim) and those most frequently used in literary and other texts (if reading is the aim). A thorough study should therefore be made of these words.

VIII. The study of French, German, or Spanish yields the ability to use the language as a tool in the prosecution of other studies in high school and college. (1) It is generally agreed that it is (?). (2) For all (?), since there is no pupil who does not study one or more of the following subjects, in all of which a reading knowledge of French, German, or Spanish will be found useful, especially if teachers can be led to utilize such ability on the part of French, German, or Spanish pupils: History, literature, sociology, government, economics, physical science, natural science, languages other than English, and advanced English study. (3) Questionnaire to be sent to teachers of other subjects than French, German, or Spanish in high school and college, inquiring how much use they make of such ability on the part of pupils and as to the results (poor, fair, good, excellent). In this same questionnaire should be included questions as to what use these teachers make in their classes of the knowledge which French, German, or Spanish pupils in their classes have of French, German, or Spanish life, history, and institutions, and of French, German, or Spanish abbreviations and quotations.

Questions (4), (6), and (7) are not essential here, but as to (5), it is suggested that, as an aid and stimulus toward getting such reading done, French, German, and Spanish teachers in high school and college send to other teachers in their school a list of French, German, and Spanish pupils who are able to read those languages. A study of the means and results may lead to a method and plan for improving this value.

IX. The study of French, German, or Spanish yields the ability to interpret French, German, or Spanish abbreviations phrases, and quotations used in English. (1) This is a proper aim (?). (2) For 100 per cent (?). (3) Tests to show comparative ability as between French, German, or Spanish and non-modern-language pupils, norms for each year to be established. (4) If it is being achieved, teachers whose classes score highest may be asked to tell how they achieve it. (5) Answer yielded by returns called for under (4) above. (6) If it is not being achieved, an investigation of the most commonly used French, German, or Spanish abbreviations, phrases, and quotations used in English should be set up, graded as to difficulty, taught, and the amounts assimilated measured in order to establish norms for each year. (7) A question relative to this value should be included in the questionnaire to graduates.

X. The study of French, German, or Spanish yields in common with other cumulative subjects, if well taught, certain general habits and ideals of the greatest value; e.g., the habit of hard and sustained application (involving will culture), systematic work, accuracy, and ideals of scholarly activity.

This is a proper value for all and one of the most important. However, since a number of other subjects, as indicated above, certainly also yield this value, the investigation of the value should be made as between this kind and other kinds of subjects. The task is, therefore, here merely alluded to.

Note. The foregoing is not an exhaustive list of the values of French, German, or Spanish. However, it will suffice to indicate the scope and method of the proposed investigation. In a survey of modern-language instruction in the United States which we hope will be made soon, an investigation similar to that outlined above in brief should form the chief part. Other questions to be investigated are in part statistical and methodological. In part they should follow lines studied in Modern Studies mentioned above.

For the present and while awaiting more exact knowledge on the basis of an investigation similar to the one proposed above, which we may confidently expect will be undertaken under the auspices of our national bodies of modern-language teachers and with the financial support, let us hope, of one of the great educational foundations, we need to continue working with the best guidance available.

The present book is an attempt to place at the disposal of the teacher the principles so far established by our best practice and by experimentation, as well as the best devices, an exposition of which is given. As to devices, the suggestion is offered that they be used as check lists; that is, by jotting down after each device the dates on which it was used, the teacher will obtain a chronology of the work done in a course.

The lists of problems appended to the chapters are intended, in part, as suggestive helps to the student in his study of the chapter; in part, as stimuli for further study. They may, too, be assigned by the teacher as part of the work of the student in methods course. The bibliography in Appendix A is brought down to date and may serve student and teacher further in carrying on original studies.

Problem for Further Study

1. Write a brief historical sketch of the teaching of French, German, or Spanish in the United States.

Reference: Handschin, *The Teaching of Modern Languages in the United States.*

CHAPTER ONE

THE SCIENTIFIC FOUNDATIONS OF MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING

Is there a science of teaching modern languages? Or are we merely following the beaten path, or the wisdom of the best practitioners? To be sure, in teaching any branch of learning whatsoever, the wisdom of the best teachers is still the main reliance. But has the wisdom of the best teachers, have their experiments, and the experiments of others, not established beyond doubt certain principles of pedagogic practice — principles which should be followed by any and every teacher, irrespective of personal ability, likes, or dislikes? Have there been established by exact measurements any principles of the learning process which are applicable in the teaching of modern languages?

If one looks over the discussions of the last few decades, particularly the polemics for and against the direct method, it would seem not. But upon a survey of the experiments in the economy of learning — which, as far as they concern modern languages, are here brought together for the first time — we do find a number of important principles which we may consider as definitely settled; a number of others have been sufficiently established to give them the standing of high probability and, until they are further proved or disproved, may be incorporated into pedagogical practice. Such a principle is that of daily drill of short duration, for a number of days — not, as heretofore practiced, isolated or intermittent drills of longer duration.[1]

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[1] See, for instance, Meumann, E., *The Psychology of Learning*, pages 265 ff. (D. Appleton & Co., New York; 1913); Pyle, W. H., "Economical Learning," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 4: 148–158, 1913; Thorndike, E. L., *Educational Psychology*, Vol. 2, page 194 (Teachers College, Columbia University, New York; 1913).

In discussing the scientific studies which are to yield us our principles, we shall do well to differentiate between various kinds of studies which have been conducted and which are still needed. Oftentimes in these days when measurements play so important a rôle, educators and writers forget that before we can measure, we must have something to measure, and before that, we need to have established proper aims and the best methods of achieving these. For of what use is measuring if the material assimilated by the learner is not material that will yield values for life? We shall begin, therefore, with a discussion of the scientific basis of the aims in modern-language instruction.

Aims depend upon the nature of the learner. How can he be taught most economically? And upon the nature of the subject to be taught. What kind of schooling does it afford? And upon the utility of the subject. How can it be useful?

Scientific study has shown that man has peculiar brain centers which are active in the use of linguistic forms.[1] Two of these centers receive impressions from organs of sense, the eye and the ear (sensory); and two centers give out impulses to the motor nerves of the hand and the vocal organs (motor).

In acquiring new linguistic forms these centers may be employed in succession, or two or more simultaneously, while in some cases one or more of the centers are not used at all. After thorough research, Wundt has constructed a scheme of the associations into which words enter. We cannot go into this erudite matter here. Those interested should read it up in the work quoted. We can here merely state the pedagogical corollary. It is this: the best method of inculcating linguistic forms is to make the first appeal to the ear,[1] to be followed by imitative speaking exercises. The chief point for our purpose is that by studying how persons suffering from aphasia use language in its fourfold aspect, a scheme of the relation between these different phases of language has been constructed which throws light upon the greater or lesser spontaneity of the various processes. The whole matter is still in the experimental stage, with little agreement on important points. The only pedagogical corollary which has been at all accepted so far is as stated above.

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[1] Wundt, W., *Psychologische Physiologie*, Vol. 1, pages 170 ff., 238 ff.; Wundt, W., *Völkerpsychologie*, Vol. 1, Part 1, "Die Sprache," Chapter 5 (Leipzig; 1911); *Ibid.*, Vol. 3, pages 568 ff.

Pohlmann found further that for the retention of words the auditory-visual process is the most effective.[2]

It has been argued [3] that presenting the material to the various sensory organs and expressing it by the motor organs in succession, heightens the impression and aids in fixing the new speech habits. This is no doubt true. The question remains: How does this procedure affect the various types of learners in a class? Does a learner of the visual type attend to the auditory impressions sufficiently, or would another mode of presentation aid his mode of retention better? Just so with motor types. Material, of course, could be presented simultaneously to the ear and the eye or be reproduced simultaneously by hand and mouth. Pohlmann, however, showed successive presentation, on the whole, more advantageous for retention;[4] and Hawkins [5] confirms this for young pupils.

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[1] See also Eggert, *Der Psychologische Zusammenhang in der Didaktik des Neusprachlichen Unterrichts*, pages 43 ff. (Berlin; 1904); also Ries, L., *Psychologisches und Unpsychologisches im Neusprachlichen Reformunterricht* (Selb in Bayern; 1912), 58 pages.

[2] Pohlmann, A., *Experimentelle Beiträge zur Lehre vom Gedächtnis*, pages 150–157 (Berlin; 1906).

[3] Handschin, C. H., "Methods of Teaching Modern Languages," *Science*, 37: 600–602, 1913.

[4] Pohlmann, *op. cit.*, page 181.

[5] Hawkins, C. J., "Experiments on Memory Types," *Psychological Review*, 4: 292, 1897.

But we must not forget that the method of presentation of material for immediate retention does not determine the method which will be adopted by the student in his perception and assimilation of the material. This latter depends partly upon the mode of presentation, but equally upon the type of the learner. Thus, the auditory types in a class will, if material is presented to them orally, form auditory images of it, while the visualizers will at once build up visual images about it, either pictures of the printed words or free imagery. The auditory-motor type will, upon suggestion or without it, pronounce the words to themselves, or go through the appropriate muscular movements in the case of words denoting motions, or even go mentally through the motions necessary to write the word. Studies in how to differentiate the work to suit the various types as far as this is possible under classroom conditions are highly desirable.[1]

Libby [2] studied the types found in his class through their reports on their own introspections. Young pupils and others not schooled in psychology have not, however, the proper insight into the phenomena to allow dependence on their self-observation. But most mature students can tell how they retain their words best. This may guide the instructor in his treatment and evaluation of them. Our warrant for holding the whole class to a certain mode of presentation is that until teachers shall be able to distinguish the types of learners clearly, and until standard procedures for providing work for the various types in the class are worked out, the teacher must perforce hold all to one kind of presentation. And, moreover, on this point Meumann says:

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[1] Stern, *Über die Psychologie der Individuellen Differenzen* (Leipzig; 1900). Cf., for the significance of ideational types in language instruction, Pfeiffer, L., *Über Qualitative Arbeitstypen* (Leipzig; 1908).

[2] Cf. Libby, W., *Pedagogical Seminary,* 17: 81–96, 1910.

> Regarding Pohlmann's own pedagogical inferences, it may be said that, in agreement with myself, he holds that in the treatment and evaluation of pupils, their ideational types must be taken into account, but not in teaching itself, because every pupil should be trained to work with methods of presentation which are not the most convenient for him.[1]

Thus, the teacher will seek to hold the class to the best mode of presentation for the class in general, or will attempt to provide in addition different modes of presentation for the different types of learners. The Handschin Predetermination Test [2] is useful in testing for linguistic ability. It also helps the teacher to recognize the type of the learner.

However, aims depend further upon the nature of the material learned. What schooling can linguistic material afford? It can be used to train in motor control, and in visual and aural perception. For this we have several experiments and the results thereof, and hence may content ourselves with merely referring to some such studies.[3]

We may argue then that since this training can be given by language teaching, and language teaching cannot give training in some other lines, and since such training is desirable, we should embrace these as proper aims. The training of the æsthetic sense, also, can very well be undertaken by the language teacher, at least as far as this can be trained by the study of literature. And in common with other studies it may be used to discipline in good habits of study. (See Chapter III.)

The utility of the subject must further determine the aims. Language is useful to obtain and to communicate ideas by hearing and reading and by speaking and writing. But not all classes of students need to learn a language for all four of these purposes. It will depend, then, first upon the student, his nature, and his needs, as to what aims we shall set up for him, or for a particular class. But for the student who is to receive a thorough knowledge of language in its fourfold aspect we must set up this fourfold aim as has been demonstrated. The best methods of attaining these aims have been studied in experiments which we shall now describe.

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[1] Meumann, E., *op. cit.*, page 155.

[2] Published, and distributed gratis, by the U. S. Bureau of Education.

[3] Dearborn, W. F., "Experiments in Learning," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 1: 373–380, 1910; Richardson, R. F., "The Learning Process in the Acquisition of Skill," *Pedagogical Seminary*, 19: 376–394, 1912.

Memory is a basal requirement in the learning process. We know that memory work has been much derided in these days of problem-solving, but we know, also, that this is only a revulsion against the former almost exclusive culture of the memory. And what was worse, the old memory culture did not provide for putting the ideas into the mind in their proper relationship. Hence the matter was often dead and insignificant. Later, we shall have something to say of the misuse of memory in modern-language work. But our quarrel is not with memory work, but with poor ways of memorizing. For must not memory furnish all the data for the solution of problems? Is it not, therefore, a basic requirement?

Let us inquire first then into its laws. The first investigation of importance here is that of Ebbinghaus.[1] The importance of his study lies in its creation of a scientific method of studying the language-learning process. The nonsense syllables, which he was the first to use for purposes of memorial activity, provide for uniform vocables, and do away with the difficulty of pronouncing a foreign language. The results we shall summarize along with those of scholars who carried these experiments further.

Cattell measured among other things the reaction time of associations of words of the native tongue with foreign words, and showed that the reaction time is longer, or shorter, according to the subject's intimacy with the foreign language.[1] His studies are important as establishing methods for the investigation of linguistic problems. The results of these experiments in the nature of language memory, which need not be described here, are best summarized by Meumann as follows:[2]

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[1] Ebbinghaus, H., *Über das Gedächtnis* (Leipzig; 1885). English translation by H. A. Rieger and C. E. Bussenius (Teachers College, New York; 1913).

> I. The fundamental conditions of association in the narrow sense are to be found (1) in the temporal factors which come into operation in association; it was chiefly these which the old law of contiguity attempted to specify. The temporal factors of association are reducible to three: (*a*) Every memory process must have a certain minimal duration in consciousness, if it is to establish a disposition to revival or an association with other contents of consciousness. We sometimes fail to retain fleeting impressions in memory because of their momentary character. (*b*) Every mental process must recur to consciousness a certain number of times if security of retention is to be attained. Impressions which have been present to consciousness but once are, in many cases, wholly forgotten unless they make a strong appeal to the attention or to the feelings. (*c*) The rhythmic recurrence of impressions and ideas tends to reenforce their retention. When words or tones are repeated in rhythm they are much more durably imprinted upon consciousness. These three conditions of association also constitute three fundamental conditions for increasing the permanence of associations and the valence or strength of dispositions, because the longer a mental process is present in consciousness, and the more frequently and the more rhythmically it returns to consciousness, the more intensive is its effect upon memory.
>
> II. A second group of conditions of association is the product of the part played by attention in the processes of consciousness. The direction of our attention to any content of consciousness endows that content with a greater associative capacity or valence. The well-known fact that attention is a significant factor in associative learning is due chiefly to this phenomenon.

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[1] Cattell, J. McKeen, "Psychometrische Untersuchungen," *Philosophische Studien*, 4: 242 ff. Cf. also *idem*, 2: 635–650, 8: 403–406, 9: 307–310.

[2] Meumann, E., *The Psychology of Learning*, pages 15 ff.

III. A third group of conditions of association is due to the influence of the feelings; here too is to be included the influence of the organic sensations which originate in the internal organs of the body and which are intimately connected with the feelings. Every experience which was attended by more or less intensive feeling or emotion becomes *ipso facto* endowed with greater associative power. It is a familiar fact that occurrences which were intensively tinged with emotion are remembered more readily and in more complete detail; a single component idea — for instance, some person who was concerned in such an occurrence — may suffice to recall the whole occurrence to consciousness. In the domain of intellect, however, our feelings manifest themselves chiefly in the form of our "interest" in certain matters; and interest is one of the most fundamental conditions of impression and association. The extraordinary significance which attaches to interest in the imprinting of impressions and ideas upon the mind of the child has always been a matter of prime importance in pedagogy.

The improvement of the memory by practice in memorizing and the transferred effect of practice in learning vocables was studied by Dearborn, and is of especial interest to modern-language teachers since French and German vocables were used. After 18 to 22 practice periods there was a gain of 53 to 62 per cent in time consumed, while the practice effect also showed a gain of 7 to 33 per cent. In learning lines of poetry, even higher percentages of gain were achieved; namely, after 13 to 26 practice periods a gain of 55 to 82 per cent in time and of 2 to 52 per cent in practice effect.[1]

There are two kinds of experiment possible in the investigation of such problems as the teaching of modern languages presents: the laboratory experiment, which is strictly scientific and exact, but which has the disadvantage of being restricted to relatively small numbers of cases and a very limited range of phenomena; and the mass experiment, which has the advantage of being conducted under actual schoolroom conditions, with considerable numbers of cases, but which has the disadvantage of affording only approximately correct measurements of the phenomena studied.

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[1] Dearborn, W. F., "Experiments in Learning," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 1:373–388, 1910.

Pedagogues are inclined to favor the latter, scientists the former. However, both kinds of experiments are necessary to establish the facts firmly.

In the case of either kind of experiment we must beware of generalizing too broadly on the basis of data now available. In our summaries we shall bear this in mind and shall state only what appear to be thoroughly valid conclusions and sound pedagogical principles resulting therefrom.

In reporting the experiments I shall describe the experiment only sufficiently to give an insight into the problem and the results. This is thought to be more valuable for the teacher than technical descriptions would be, which would in addition cumber my pages unduly. All references are appended, which will enable those so inclined to read up the original in any case.

Peterson [1] was the first to propose the undertaking of an experiment strictly in modern-language teaching. He also improved the method of investigation when he took up the question whether associations are formed more readily and permanently between the foreign symbol and its equivalent (noun) in the native tongue or between the foreign symbol and the object denoted by it; and second, between the foreign word and its equivalent in the native tongue (verb) or between the foreign word and the movement or action denoted by it (verb). Four series were used, as follows:

1. Foreign word — noun.
2. Foreign word — object.
3. Foreign word — verb.
4. Foreign word — movement.

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[1] Peterson, "Recall of Words, Objects, and Movements," *Psychological Review,* Monograph supplement 4: 207–233, 1903.

These were presented in such manner that the subject saw simultaneously the known nouns, objects, verbs, and motions, with the foreign words graphically represented above them. Both during the trials and during the following test, the order of presentation was properly varied in order to produce uniform conditions.

The tests showed that the memory for objects and movements is greater than for verbal impressions; i.e., that associations between the foreign noun and the object represented by it, and between the foreign verb and the movement denoted by it, are more readily formed than the associations between these foreign words and the equivalent words of the mother tongue. At a later test — 9 to 16 days after — the result was somewhat more favorable for the association between foreign words and native words but still decidedly favorable to the association between foreign words and objects or movements.

The findings of this experiment are very important, especially when taken in connection with Kirkpatrick's study[1] in which he found that almost three times as many objects as visual words were recalled after an interval of 3 days. This experiment was made with 379 school children and college students. In addition he showed that the children were not more dependent on the object than were the college students. Moreover, Miss Calkins[2] made the same test with 50 college women, substituting lantern-slide pictures for the objects. Her results were 4.82 words against 7.45 objects, thus substantially corroborating Kirkpatrick's findings. Her higher averages are probably due to shortening the interval from 3 to 2 days.

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[1] Kirkpatrick, E. A., "An Experimental Study of Memory," *Psychological Review*, 1 : 602–609, 1894.

[2] Calkins, M. W., "A Study of Immediate and Delayed Recall of the Concrete and of the Verbal," *Psychological Review*, 5 : 451–462, 1898; *Ibid.*, 5 : 451, 1898.

Pohlmann performed experiments similar to those of Binet and Henri, noted later in this chapter, and found that in the presentation of isolated printed or auditory words, the rate of presentation is important, especially for the visual types, who are unable to transform the auditory images presented into visual images as rapidly as the auditory types.[1] Pohlmann also demonstrated by experiment that memory for concrete objects is greater than that for verbal impressions.[2]

An experiment which is of considerable interest, the results of which have so far been published only in the following abstract, is that by Findlay.[3]

> The investigations which the author undertook commenced in 1891 (after the visit of Professors Passy and Viëtor to England) and have been continued under varying conditions up to the present. The specific problem presented for discussion is the mental processes at work in acquiring a foreign language (having on one side the ultimate aims presupposed by a teacher).
>
> The writer observed and noted (*a*) his own experiences; (*b*) those of fellow students when acquiring a foreign tongue; (*c*) children and students in small classes, sometimes taught intensively; (*d*) classes in a school in Cardiff, 1898–1903, in which he was able with exceptional freedom to direct a coördinated scheme of teaching, extending over five years; the classes were taught by a number of able assistant masters, who coöperated on common principles of teaching: the results were annually examined in detail by the Central Welsh Board (younger scholars orally, older scholars also in writing for junior and senior certificates); these reports are available for reference.
>
> The important phenomena may be summarized thus: (*a*) The process is fundamentally one of acquiring habits of automatic reaction in the association of foreign symbols with ideas. (*b*) Dis-

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[1] Pohlmann, A., *Experimentelle Beiträge zur Lehre vom Gedächtnis*, pages 71 ff. (Berlin; 1906).

[2] *Ibid.*, pages 145 ff.

[3] Abstract of paper presented by Professor Findlay to the British Association Meeting at York, August, 1906. *The Demonstration Schools' Record*, No. 1, page 69 (Manchester University Press; 1908).

tinctions between reading and hearing, speaking and writing, are of minor importance. (*c*) The employment of language (native or foreign) is a synthetic, not an analytic process; the recognition of the single symbol is merely a step (and often an unnecessary one) toward the immediate recognition of the general sense of a passage. But an equivalent in the vernacular may often be suggested for a moment and then encouraged to sink below the threshold of consciousness.

In contrast with other arts (compare golf) the special hindrance encountered in acquiring a second language is due to the extraordinary resistance of the native speech "center." Hence to the beginner the path of least discomfort is to interpret the foreign symbol *through* the native symbol, and thus to set up a translation habit, which is really a bar to progress, since objects of thought can only be symbolized with effect when the objective, the thought, is *directly* expressed by the symbol appropriate to it. When once the establishment (mental and physical) of a new speech center is begun, *with its accompanying set of experiences*, the force of resistance rapidly diminishes. The rate of progress depends (*a*) upon the intensity of the learner's absorption in the new art during the early stage; (*b*) upon suitable environment with appropriate objects of thought. When the new habit is established in only a small degree, traces abide for a great length of time, *and can be easily recovered.* A month's residence among foreign people or a year's course of school instruction suffices to overcome the resistance in its earliest and strongest stage. The use of a special phonetic script is of doubtful value to learners, except to adults who have received a philological training. The study of changes in nervous function accompanying the mental process is not at present adequate to confirm these conclusions, but inquiry into cases of aphasia among bilingual people may be expected to throw some light upon the nature of brain centers for foreign speech. The attempt to "establish" two foreign languages at the same time should not be made; each tends to inhibit the other. French, for instance, should hold the field for three years at least before German or Spanish is introduced. Latin, however, taken on a translation method, does not appreciably interfere.

Whether these principles are sufficiently established is not certain, since the description of the experiment is wanting as well as tabulation of results. They have high probability, since they are corroborated by other experiments given in these pages.

An experiment as to the number of words that can be assimilated efficiently was reported by Stockton in 1908.[1] The class involved was "small" and averaged 10 years of age. The course consisted of 16 weeks, 5 periods a week, of 20 minutes each, and 16 weeks, 5 periods weekly, of 30 minutes each. In all, 258 French words were learned and thoroughly assimilated. Many devices were used, such as giving the children French names, making mutations of sentences by using them in dialogue, in series, etc.

This experiment is valuable in that it emphasizes the fact that only a very limited number of words can be thoroughly learned in an elementary course.

Schuyten[2] of Antwerp attacked the problem of translation from and into the foreign language. His experiment consisted in presenting in series, first the word of the native tongue followed by the foreign word, and in other series, first the foreign word followed by its native equivalent. Four classes of schoolboys memorized these series, whereupon the tests showed that the ability to recall the vernacular word on the presentation of the foreign word is frequently two or three times greater than the ability to recall the foreign word on the presentation of the vernacular; further, that in every case more permanent associations were formed when the foreign word was presented first. Only isolated words, not sentences, were used as material.

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[1] Stockton, C. E., "The First Year's Course in French," *The Demonstration Schools' Record*, No. 1, pages 59–73 (Manchester University Press; 1908).

[2] Schuyten, M. C., "Experimentelles zum Studium der Gebräuchlichsten Methoden im Fremdsprachlichen Unterricht," *Zeitschrift für Experimentelle Pädagogik*, 3: 199–211, 1906.

A laboratory experiment was conducted by Netchajeff[1] in Petrograd in which he tested 64 *adults* in point of associations formed between foreign word and native word (F.N.) and native word and foreign word (N.F.) and picture and foreign word (P.F.).

The total results showed that the methods F.N. and N.F. are more advantageous for immediate retention as well as for forming lasting associations than the method P.F. Trials after an interim of 115 (123), 145 (146) days yielded the same results. Method P.F. also caused greater fatigue than methods F.N. and N.F. While these results do not agree with those obtained by other experiments quoted in this chapter, it should be observed that the subjects in this experiment were *adults*.

Kirkman published the results of similar experiments performed with 151 young pupils, the object of which was to learn whether the object-foreign-word method or the foreign-word-native-word method of teaching individual words is more valuable for "memory." We see at once that this question is stated with little precision. Likewise the method of the experiment is open to criticism. The words were not standardized but left to the choice of the individual teachers conducting the experiment.[2] His results are favorable to the object method in the proportion 5.4 to 4.7.[3] Taken in connection with the experiments of Peterson, Kirkpatrick, and Pohlmann, the experiment is of interest.

Note. A curious article viewed from the viewpoint of educational psychology is that of Senger. He counts the facts learned in German I and those in Latin I and finds 967 for German I and 2277 for Latin. The remainder of the article is not of importance for us here. Senger should have considered the additional categories and completed a survey of what is really accomplished in these two courses. As it is, he has accounted only for the learning of meanings and functions.

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[1] Netchajeff, A., "Psychologische Beobachtungen zur Frage über den Fremdländischen Sprachunterricht," *Pädagogische Psychologische Studien*, Vol. 9, Nos. 1 and 2, 1908.

[2] Kirkman, F. B., "An Experiment in Method," *Modern Language Teaching*, 4: 201–203. London; 1908.

[3] These total averages are a compilation of the partial averages given on page 202.

However, Senger, no doubt, had not a scientific survey in mind at all, but attacked the matter from the point of view of the reformer who wished to see Latin I simplified and made of greater interest to the pupil. Viewed in this light the article is highly commendable.

Holzwarth, who replies to him in similar vein, finds more facts for German I than Senger. His rejoinder is of interest to teachers of German.[1]

An interesting start on an experiment was made by Kirkman,[2] all the more interesting since it is of such a nature that any teacher can continue it with the same phenomena or apply it to the study of matters of a similar nature. The experiment will not be quoted except for the following passage:

> The object was to find out how long it takes to eradicate a blunder once made. Arguing *a priori* one would conclude that, unless the correction were repeated more or less often, the mistake would tend to persist, for as a rule its perpetration costs the learner more effort and is attended with more interest than its rectification. Now if it is true that a mistake is more likely to be remembered than its correction made once, it follows that, if the former is to be eradicated, the correction must be repeated the necessary number of times.

The necessary number of times was found in case of an abnormally dull boy to be five.

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[1] Senger, H. L., "A Comparison of First Year Courses in Latin and German," *School Review*, 22: 302–314, 1914; Holzwarth, C., "First Year Latin and First Year German," *School Review*, 22: 540–544. Cf. also P. M. Buck, who, in an article called "Latin and the Modern Languages" in *The Nation*, 96: 465, 1913, argues for Latin and against the modern languages as an instrument of discipline upon the basis of slight statistical figures.

[2] Kirkman, F. B., *The Teaching of Foreign Languages*, pages 101–104 (London; 1914).

The question of the relative efficiency of two methods of learning meanings was again attacked by Grinstead.[1] The question investigated is whether learning isolated vocables or learning vocables in sentences is the best for forming permanent associations. The following gives the results of special interest:

> The two methods tested were: (*a*) Reading to get the meaning and looking up the unknown words in a dictionary as encountered; and (*b*) looking up in a dictionary words encountered in a formal list. The factor really tested was the associational influence of the context in fixing the meaning of the new words encountered.
>
> In spite of the small number of words used, the results appear to be perfectly definite and unambiguous in meaning. Words encountered in context were remembered in both trials decidedly better than words encountered out of context. The advantage in favor of the context method is 3 per cent of the whole number. That is, according to these results, 3 per cent more of the total number of new words encountered will be recognized when next seen, if the new words were encountered in context, than would be the case if they were listed and looked up. Not only so, but the advantage is three times as great for the recognition of the word after a twenty-four-hour interval.

NOTE. The correlation between the ability to classify German vocables into their semasiological categories and the knowledge of their exact signification was studied by Reichling.[2] This interesting little study shows that the ratio between the two is quite constant and that the device may therefore be used as a substitute for translation — for instance, in tests — the advantage being that such tests require much less work on the part of the corrector. The device had been used by others in English tests.

The *modus operandi* consists in preparing lists of German words such as a German schoolboy might reasonably be expected to understand. The directions make their use perfectly clear. The student classifies the words by setting the appropriate letter over or under each, the nomenclature being mostly the initial of the German or

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[1] Grinstead, W. J., "An Experiment in the Learning of Foreign Words," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 6: 242–245, 1915.

[2] *Modern Language Journal*, 1: 105 ff.

English category-word. For example, tools are to be marked "*w*" (*Werkzeug*), words relating to time "*t*" (time). To mark such a paper takes little time and the results are unambiguous, as the pupil gets the category either right or wrong and the doubt as to whether he "had the idea" but could not think of the English word so common in the minds of teachers who correct examination papers is mostly eliminated.

Reichling's conclusions are:

> Thus in general an accurate idea of the pupil's proficiency in vocabulary work could be gained by taking from 10 to 15 per cent from his rating on the simpler and quicker category test.
>
> We see from the above résumé that we should scarcely ever be led astray in judging a pupil's proficiency in vocabulary work by a test of the above nature.

Swift, in an experiment with high-school classes, one of 14 boys and 14 girls and another of 10 boys and 10 girls, studied the effect of antecedent training — Latin for one year or Latin and German for one year — on the beginning work in Spanish.

> These tests, which were given every Tuesday, consisted each time of 100 words, 50 per cent of which were new words and phrases, and 50 per cent old words in new combinations. The time allowed for each test was 30 minutes, and at the expiration of that time the papers were laid aside for collection.[1]

The tests were continued for 15 weeks. As a result an initial advantage which did not vanish during the 15 weeks was observed. Swift thinks this advantage accrued from the grammatical information carried over. This is no doubt true, but it does not account entirely for the considerable advantage shown in these cases; and especially if taken in connection with Libby's experiment, described a little later,[2] it is plain that to some degree this advantage must be ascribed to associations of the words of the new language with those of other languages already known.

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[1] Swift, E. J., *Mind in the Making*, pages 244–253 (New York; 1908).

[2] Cf. also Libby, W., "An Experiment in Learning a Foreign Language," *Pedagogical Seminary*, 17: 81–96, 1910. See especially page 91.

Following the, on the whole, chronological order in which we are giving the experiments, we come upon the slight statistical study of McKee, which, of course, is not an experiment at all, but merely a tabulation. Tabulations, if so made as to eliminate error, may be very useful for some phenomena, and since McKee's findings agree with others, which come later, they deserve to be noted. By means of statistics of college students' grades (Lake Forest College) McKee shows that students who have studied German before coming to college make better grades than those who have studied Latin; also that the study of German has a more beneficial effect on the student's English than does the study of Latin.[1]

Continuing the investigation in 1913 with more cases and in another section of the country (University of Maine), he writes:

> We must conclude that the advantage, if any, is slight and is in favor of the modern language. A slight increase in the quality of the work in English, as the total amount of foreign-language training increases, is also to be noticed.[2]

Braunshausen reports an experiment with 40 adolescents quite similar to Netchajeff's except that he used dissyllabic Latin words instead of the nonsense words of Netchajeff, and instead of the pictures, he used the objects themselves. The outstanding points to be noted are: The subject was asked: (1) to write the words he remembered after one presentation; (2) to write the words he remembered after the second presentation; (3) to give the foreign equivalent of words of the mother tongue which were dictated to him; (4) to give the mother-tongue equivalent of foreign words dictated to him. The fifth test, held a week later, consisted in writing all the foreign words which the subject was able to recall.

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[1] McKee, Ralph H., "Latin vs. German," *Popular Science Monthly*, 75: 393, 1909.

[2] McKee, Ralph H., "Ancient vs. Modern Languages as a Preparation for English," *Pedagogical Seminary*, 20: 45–47, 1913.

The result, in brief, was favorable to the object-foreign-word method of presentation with foreign-word native-word method following as second and the native-word foreign-word method as least favorable to immediate as well as permanent associations.[1] While these findings do not agree with Netchajeff's, we must note that here adolescents were tested while Netchajeff tested adults.

The problem which the Countess of Wartensleben (Würzburg, Germany) attacked was the psychological process involved in translating into the mother tongue.

Her tabulations consist of the data of self-observation noted down by four, at times only three, persons concerning their experiences while translating Latin sentences into German. These persons, who were expert in psychology and in the technique of self-observation, recorded, each, the psychological states experienced from the time of reading the Latin sentence until he had completed its translation into German.

The results may be stated concisely as follows: There is a form of immediate translation in which no conscious states intervene between the reading of the foreign word and the speaking or writing of the native word. In other cases there intervene various states of consciousness.[2] In case the association between the foreign word and the native word is well established, these intervening states of consciousness are fewer than in cases where few or weak associations exist.

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[1] Braunshausen, "Les Méthodes d'Enseignement des Langues Étrangères," *Revue Psychologique,* Vol. 3, 1910.

[2] Wartensleben, G. V., "Beiträge zur Psychologie des Übersetzens," *Zeitschrift für Psychologie,* 57 : 89–115, 1910.

The object of a study made by Libby[1] was to discover the relative value of making the word, or the short sentence, the unit in modern-language instruction for different types of learners. A class of 10 in experimental psychology was taught 10 short sentences of Italian consisting of approximately 5 words each, and 10 detached Italian words, about 60 words in all, each week, for 8 weeks. Thus there was an interval of one week between the exercises, except between the sixth and seventh exercise, when there was a two weeks' intermission. The first two times the matter was written on the board; for all the other tests the exercises were typewritten and put before each student. The important point for us in this study, which is full of points of value aside from the main upshot, is that learning words in sentences is a more economical way than learning isolated words. Incidentally, it is of value in that it establishes the fact that different students learn differently and that associations of many different kinds may be used to fix words in mind, not only aural and oral, and not only associations between foreign words.

Thus Libby's experiment supports the findings of Grinstead as well as Binet and Henri, who also found that the retention of vocables learned in sentences is much more perfect than the retention of isolated words. Out of a list of 7 isolated words only 5 were on the average reproduced correctly. While of a sentence containing 38 words in 17 logically connected groups, 15 groups were reproduced, and of sentences containing 74 words in 24 groups, 18 groups were, on an average, reproduced.[2]

A most interesting and technically the most perfect experiment in methods of learning meanings was conducted by

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[1] Libby, W., "An Experiment in Learning a Foreign Language," *Pedagogical Seminary*, 17 : 81–96, 1910.

[2] Binet, A., and Henri, V., "La Mémoire des Mots," *Année Psychologique*, 1 : 1–23, 1894.

Can. Committee [illegible]

— [illegible] to [illegible] sentences & [illegible]

L. Schlüter of Göttingen.[1] The methods tested were learning by giving, first, the foreign, then the native word (F.N.), and secondly, by giving the object represented by the foreign word, then the foreign word itself (O.F.). The tests required of the subjects were (1) supplying the foreign word, the native word being presented, (2) supplying the foreign word, the object being presented. The technique of the experiment is too intricate to be described here. The results are quite definite. The most important are: It depends upon the nature of the test as to which of the modes of learning is the more effective. The method F.N. proved the more effective if in the test the foreign word was presented and the native word was to be supplied. But the method O.F. proved more effective if in the test the native word or the object was presented and the foreign word required. Beyond this, it was shown that visualizers (visual types) dispense with the native word more readily than persons of motor or acoustic type; i.e., they fasten their attention upon the graphic representation of the foreign word at once and thus have less recourse to the native word than the persons of motor or acoustic type.

Miss Clarahan conducted an experiment with five sections of first-year German in the High School of the University of Missouri.[2] The pupils were of average ability in all the sections. (See tables I, II, pp. 9–11.) The teachers of the five sections were ranked as of equal ability. In other respects, also, conditions were kept even, as far as possible — except that two sections were taught by the grammar method and three by the reading method. Her conclusion is:

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[1] Schlüter, L., "Experimentelle Beiträge zur Prüfung der Anschauungs- und der Übersetzungsmethode bei der Einführung in einen Fremdsprachlichen Wortschatz," *Zeitschrift für Psychologie*, Vol. 68, Nos. 1 and 2, 1911.

[2] Clarahan, M., "An Experimental Study of Methods of Teaching High School German," *Bulletin of the University of Missouri, Educational Series*, Vol. 1, No. 6, 1913.

It may be concluded, then, that, as far as the aims regarding grammar, pronunciation, and reading are concerned, the reading method, as used, has proved decidedly the better. Moreover, from what has been said it is evident that the reading method has been more successful in solving at least two of the problems raised: How learn grammar and yet not give this study undue emphasis? How acquire an easy reading knowledge and yet not be superficial? The aim concerned with speaking the language, and the problem connected with the interests of the high-school students, yet remain to be discussed.

No specific test was given concerning the ability of the students in speaking German; this could best be judged by observation from day to day. Judging from this, then, it may be said unhesitatingly that in this respect the reading sections also ranked first.

A statistical study by Starch (1915)[1] has been reserved to this moment in order to discuss it along with its continuation published in 1917. We will quote his conclusions only:

> Incidentally the implication may also be pointed out that knowledge of grammar has very little effect upon correct usage. The large increases in grammatical knowledge are accompanied by only very small increases in correct usage. Correct usage is primarily a matter of establishing correct habits of speech, and grammatical knowledge is useful only in so far as it helps to establish such habits. Apparently imitation and repetition of correct expression are far more efficacious in forming correct habits than grammatical knowledge. The recent tendency to reduce the time devoted to formal grammar and to postpone the study of it to later years is in accord with these findings.
>
> *Summary.* The scholastic records of students in the university entering with Latin are only to a slight and negligible extent better than those of students entering with German. Likewise, the scholastic records in modern languages, either beginning or advanced, or in English, of students entering with Latin are only to a very slight extent better than those of students entering with German. This slight difference is probably due to an inherent

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[1] Starch, D., "Some Experimental Data on the Value of Studying Foreign Languages," *School Review*, 23: 697–703, 1915.

difference in the students rather than to a difference produced by these languages.

The English vocabulary of pupils who had studied Latin was 2.7 per cent larger than the vocabulary of those who had not studied Latin in the case of university students, and 4.5 per cent larger in the case of high-school pupils.

The study of foreign languages materially increases a student's knowledge of English grammar, but only slightly increases his ability to use English correctly.[1]

In a more recent study[2] Starch measures the ability of various groups of foreign-language students, groups who have had from one to fifteen years of foreign language, by means of a series of fourteen tests. This is an almost ideal mass experiment and its conclusions are of the greatest importance. We may quote his conclusion as follows:

> The compositions written by the students who had studied foreign languages from 9 to 15 years had an average value of 78.2, or 15.7 per cent better than those written by the 1–2-year group. . . .
>
> The 9–15-year group wrote in 10 minutes compositions which were 28.9 per cent longer than those of the 1–2-year group. . . .
>
> The 1–2-year group wrote on an average 82.3 different words in a composition whose average length was 140.7 words. There is a considerable increase from group to group. The 9–15-year group shows a gain of 35.4 per cent over the 1–2-year group. . . .
>
> There are two general factors which enter into the increased ability in composition or in reading with the increasing years of foreign-language study: (1) the training effect of the study of languages, and (2) the selection of pupils. The persons in the 9–15-year group wrote better compositions and had better ability in reading than the 1–2-year group, partly because of greater linguistic training and partly because of their better original capacity. The purpose of the remaining tests was to measure, if possible, the relative shares of these two factors. . . .
>
> The results of the experiments (see row 6–14) show that the gain in quality of composition of the 9–15-year group over the 1–2-year

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[1] See pages 702–703, *ibid.*

[2] Starch, D., "The Value of Studying Foreign Languages," *School Review*, 25: 243–248, 1917.

group is 15.7 per cent and that the difference in general ability between these two groups is 7.9 per cent if tests 8–14 may be regarded as measuring the difference in original ability. The difference between 15.7 per cent and 7.9 per cent, or 7.8 per cent, would be the residuum due to the additional language training which the 9–15-year group had had. . . . The 9–15-year group had an average grade of 88.0, or five points higher than the 1–2-year group. . . .

The increase in length of composition and in speed of reading is large and very probably in excess of the difference in original ability. Training in foreign language seems to have produced a distinct effect in greater fluency of words in writing and in more rapid perception of words in reading.

TESTS AND MEASUREMENTS

A word should be said here also about tests and measurements in modern-language teaching. We have reached a point in our modern-language teaching where we feel the need of standard objective scales by which to measure the product of our teaching. In some lines, especially in elementary school teaching, the work in measurements has been carried to the point of considerable perfection, and we recognize that it means a decided advance in our educational work. To get something to measure is, however, the most important thing; and good, painstaking teaching is still the all-important factor. But we know also that measuring results, exactly, gives us a check on our work, shows us its weak and strong points, and stimulates both student and teacher. Scientifically inclined teachers desire exact measurements. In language, the phenomena treated are more intangible than in many other subjects, and results seem discouragingly intangible often. We desire, and we need, to know what we have accomplished. We can learn this best by thoroughly objective scientific standards of measurements.

Let us inquire next into the principles which should obtain in making scales. (1) The test must be objective; that is, it must not depend on any peculiar training of the student but should measure what is generally considered desirable in student-training and what is generally taught. Further, the interpretation of the student's work must admit of no subjective or individual opinion; i.e., the form in which the material is called for, and the method of scoring, must be such that half a dozen or any number of teachers administering the test separately will each get the same reaction and the same score. (2) It must test in a manner analogous to the one usually employed by teachers in teaching and not in a way in which classes have never reacted before, which would be obviously unjust and unwise. (3) It must be of such a nature as to be valuable to both student and teacher from the start; i.e., even before it has been standardized. (4) It must be comprehensive enough to include all from the poorest to the best students. (5) The units of the scale must not be too large, especially where the answer is by its nature entirely right or entirely wrong. (6) It must be tested out in a sufficient number of cases. (7) It must be simple, so that teacher and student will not waste time attempting to learn what is wanted. (8) Perhaps most important, if many teachers are to be induced to use it and use it over and over year after year, the method of administering it, and especially of scoring, must be simple and require very little time.

Note. There are numerous tests now being printed, and used sporadically. As a rule, they are improperly constructed, or measure abilities which cannot be considered as constituting proper aims in our instruction today. Generally, also, the tests have not been standardized to a point where they really measure accurately. Exceptions to these objections are formed by the Henmon Tests and the Handschin Tests, both published by the World Book Company.

RÉSUMÉ OF THE CHAPTER

These principles may therefore be considered as sufficiently established to warrant their use in pedagogical practice: (1) If the fourfold learning of language is to be accomplished, the first approach should be aural, the second oral. (2) Modern-language study serves skill in motor control (speaking and writing) and in visual and aural perception and discipline in good habits of study. (Wundt, Eggert, Pohlmann, et al.)

NOTE. A plan for investigating the results of direct and indirect method teaching has been sketched by Lay [1] and should be investigated by any one desiring to undertake experiments along this line. His outline of the technique to be employed is the most significant available.

There must be conscious memorial activity; matter which is to be retained must be repeated, i.e., presented repeatedly to consciousness; rhythmical form and recurrence favor retention; attention is an important factor in memorial activity and attention depends on interest; the feelings (of pleasure or pain and the emotions in general) also play a great part in memorial activity and the feelings manifest themselves in the form of interest. (Meumann, et al.)

The memory for objects and movements is greater than for verbal impressions. (Peterson, Braunshausen, Kirkman, Kirkpatrick, Calkins, Pohlmann.)

Auditory material must be repeated several times slowly, especially for the benefit of visual types. (Pohlmann.)

The ability to recall the vernacular word on presentation of the foreign word (translation from the foreign language) is much greater (2 or 3 times as great) than the ability to recall the foreign word upon presentation of the vernacular (translation into the foreign language). (Schuyten.) *For adults*, both foreign-word native-word and native-word foreign-word learning are superior to teaching foreign words by means of pictures in point of easiest and surest retention, of fatigue, of most ready reproduction, and of dependence upon form of learning. (Netchajeff.)

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[1] Lay, W. A., "Zur Experimentellen Untersuchung der Frage der Direkten und Indirekten Methode des Fremdsprachlichen Unterrichts," *Die Experimentelle Pädagogik*, 3: 95, 101, 1906.

The object-foreign-word method of learning is superior to the foreign-word native-word method, and this is superior to the native-word foreign-word method in point of immediate as well as permanent retention. (Braunshausen.)

Learning words in sentences is easier for immediate or deferred recall than learning isolated words. (Libby, Grinstead, Binet and Henri.) It depends upon the nature of the tests (uses to which the knowledge is put) as to which mode of presentation is best employed. (Schlüter.)

The reading method is superior to the grammar-translation method for assimilating reading texts as well as for assimilating grammatical knowledge. (Clarahan.)

The study of foreign languages materially increases the student's knowledge of English grammar, but only slightly increases his ability to use English correctly. Training in foreign language seems to have produced a distinct effect in greater fluency of words in writing and in more rapid perception of words in reading. (Starch.)

Transfer of training in grammar study from the study of one language to that of another seems probable. (Swift.)

The difficulty of eradicating errors once committed shown. (Kirkman.)

These are, consequently, the principles which may be considered as established or which have high probability. Those who are in doubt about one or all of them may repeat the experiments upon which they are based, thus verifying or controverting them, but *a priori* reasoning about the matter will hardly serve. The deductions made in this book will be based upon them, although I shall not refer to the principle in each case.

Problems

Some of the experiments described in the foregoing chapter may be continued by persons interested. For further suggestions as to experiments see Introductory chapter.

Experiments as to the economy of learning vocables by various methods of preparation are also desirable. Many students study an assignment over only once, but from what we know of the laws of memory, repetitions are, in comparison to the amount of effort bestowed on them, disproportionately productive. If the average student knows 50 per cent of the vocables after the first reading, how many will he retain on the second, third, and fourth reading? Suggestions: Measure the results of these four methods; viz., when one, two, three, or four readings were made at the time of preparing the lesson and when a review is taken the next day, before the recitation. The results should be used in supervising study-plans or in giving directions for home study. Have an assignment read a week or a month later, or both, and measure the vocables retained to determine the value of review reading. This may determine the practice of rereading periodically all matter read.

We may also test the efficiency of learning meanings by extensive and intensive reading. Another test is desirable to establish the effect of speaking orally while learning. The results might be used in giving directions for home study. See Chapter XII.

CHAPTER TWO

VALUES AND METHODS

THE VALUES

VALUES refer to the changes which we desire to make in our pupils by means of the study of modern languages. The ultimate aims in education may be set down as good will to men, useful, happy lives, and noble enjoyment.[1] Or, as another has put it in terms of our day:

1. Social Efficiency: (*a*) economic, (*b*) domestic, (*c*) civic.
2. Good Will.
3. Harmless Enjoyment.[2]

Again it is generally agreed that every subject of study should have at least these values: discipline or training, information, and ideals.

All of these are also proper aims for the modern-language teacher, but, for him, the proximate aims vary from those of teachers in other branches, owing to the difference in subject matter.

This leads us to set down as aims in modern-language teaching: skill, discipline, information, and enjoyment. These will include special work as follows (see Chapters IV to XIV):

1. Skill. Skill in pronunciation; in associating symbols and meanings in reading, speaking, and writing, in using foreign language for deepening the understanding of English words and constructions, in using a knowledge of foreign civilizations to interpret our own.

2. Discipline. Habits of study and behavior. Ideals of social behavior, honor, justice, courage, etc. Ideals of scholarship.

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[1] Thorndike, E. L., *The Principles of Teaching*, page 3 (New York; 1916).

[2] Parker, S. C., *Methods of Teaching in High Schools*, page 16 (Ginn & Co., Boston; 1915).

3. Information concerning the language, literature, history, institutions, and contemporary affairs of the foreign people. The social heritage. Moral and æsthetic ideals through the study of the foreign literature.

4. Enjoyment. Singing, reciting, studying pictorial matter, dramatics, music, and art.

Foreign language should not be studied for itself but as a tool for certain ends. To achieve these aims the work must be shaped accordingly, since these values are realized only if the material lends itself to this end and if it is properly applied to this end in the teaching. Moreover, values must be realizable progressively, as we go along, and not only at the end of the course. That is, we must agree on values which are realizable for every stage of the course, for a half year as well as for four or six; not the same aims throughout, but results of a definite character.

We have made some progress toward defining such aims in general and in detail and we are, in this, certainly much stronger than we are in the matter of the way in which they shall be realized, that is, by the use of what precise material and what precise drills and exercises. The task of determining this is a large one. The work on a standard vocabulary and standard exercises for elementary and higher classes will need to be the work of many minds. The prospect has been broached in the introduction to this book. In the meantime, while waiting for such a plan to be undertaken, there is plenty of work for all free lances to do. Teachers' associations need to discuss seriously, with preparation and in detail, the values which shall be striven for in each stage of a course, the materials which shall be used, and the procedures in general, while research men need each to choose a delimited field, e.g., standard vocabulary, tests, kinds of work to achieve a certain result, and to establish by induction, classroom experiment, and laboratory research, standards for each of these phases of teaching.

That precise material and procedures must be chosen for achieving each value is plain. To procure values to the student means to have them functioning within the classroom and outside it from day to day. Well-planned exercises upon material selected for a specific purpose must become the rule.[1]

Indeed, teaching must go further. It must lead the learner to go through similar exercises of his own invention habitually, and to apply the exercises to life, reading foreign literature, i.e., judging foreign ideas, judging our affairs through a knowledge of foreign affairs, and interpreting difficulties in our language by means of his knowledge of the foreign language.

We forget often that no kind of material will automatically bring the learner to make the application to the problems of life. That is, transfer is not to any great extent automatic. We may expect some automatic transfer; at least the latest researches allow us to suppose this, but for the greater part if we wish the student to make the application to the problems of life, we must lead him to do so, so consistently that he will form the habit in and outside of the classroom. For instance, if we wish him to read for pleasure and information, we must see that he does so throughout our course of instruction. If we wish him to judge our affairs on the basis of a knowledge of foreign affairs, we must see that he does so throughout our course and that he forms the habit of doing so. If we wish him to gain a better understanding of English words and construction on the basis of a knowledge of the foreign language, we must see to it that he does so throughout our course and forms the habit of doing so. In this case these habits may continue to function even if he should cease reading the foreign language and should keep up his knowledge of France, Germany, and Spain, through reading our English periodicals.

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[1] The procedures are treated in the various chapters of this book. As to amounts, see the syllabi printed in Appendix C.

We see, then, that the matter of evaluating national institutions, customs, manners, and traits is made habitual on the sure basis of many carefully thought-out classroom problems and exercises and on the basis of many more which the student is led to bring of his own accord for consideration. These problems should arise out of his reading in the foreign literature and in the current American periodicals, papers, and books, as well as out of his environment.

Among the most difficult problems will be the interpretation of the philosophy which underlies the current literature — literary, political, social — of the foreign nation. This will be material for the upper, more mature years. It indicates what a far way it is to this from learning the elementary facts of language, and this may point out the far reaches of the subject of teaching modern languages.

THE METHODS

Methods depend upon the nature of the subject taught, the nature of the human mind and nervous constitution, and the ends to be attained. That the method of teaching modern languages must differ from that of teaching dead languages is therefore a patent fact. This, however, was long overlooked, in fact from the time when realism first met humanism until very recently. However, it was felt by some in all times that the old humanistic-philological method of treating texts was unfit to be applied to the learning of the modern tongues. Even in the age of humanism we find Luther stressing this point, and ever since then there have been continual more or less effective protests, until our own generation and the preceding one succeeded in introducing a method in keeping with the tenets mentioned above.

The dead languages are to be read, not spoken, although the classicists have, under the stimulus of the direct-method movement, come to advocate Latin conversation in the classroom as a means of surer assimilation of that tongue. But surely the modern languages are meant to be spoken, and can be thoroughly learned more surely and economically by the oral method than by the old deaf-mute method, as I should like to term it.

The deaf-mute language is by its nature intended to be learned by signs, mutely. That is the surest and most economical method to teach deaf mutes. It is useless for the deaf mute to attempt to enlist the vocal organs and the ear in its acquisition. For him the eye is the only organ of reception, the hand the only organ of expression of thought. He is a defective. This was the method also of instructing in modern languages until recently — a deaf-mute system. The pupils needed neither ears nor vocal organs, except occasionally in a most imperfect and rudimentary way.

But we are not teaching defectives. Our pupils really have, besides the eye to receive and the hand to express thought, ears to receive and vocal organs to express thought, of both of which the old method made but little use. To use a figure, it is plain that we were running four-cylinder cars on two cylinders. And the worst was that the chauffeurs had not discovered that the cars had four cylinders. True, some claimed so, and even demonstrated for short stretches, but the majority stoutly maintained that even if the cars did have four cylinders, they could get up more speed on two, and besides, it took less gas and less labor on the part of the chauffeur. Besides, there were differences among the chauffeurs as to where they were going. Some wanted to get into the uplands, while the wise ones said you couldn't run those cars uphill except for very gentle inclines and short stretches.

Well, to leave this chaffing vein, I think it has been demonstrated by now that the cars have four workable cylinders and that we can go anywhere, as far as time and strength will allow.

THE JUSTIFICATION OF A DIRECT METHOD

By direct method is here meant interpreting without the use of the mother tongue. That this is the best method if a speaking knowledge and an intimate acquaintance with the language are desired is now fully accepted. The psychological reason for this is as follows: There is a set of habits peculiar to each language — of thought, of intonation, of position, of words, of grammatical accidence, etc. — which together make up the genius of the language. The successive states of consciousness with all their peculiarity of feeling, willing, and thinking expressed by the consecutive speech, are so different from the corresponding states of consciousness expressed in another language that it is impossible for the foreigner to get the exact meaning of a whole sentence even though the meaning of all the individual words in it be known to him.

To get this set of habits which make the genius of a foreign language is impossible by a method which alternates the two sets of habits (as in translation) of the foreign and the native language. To form new habits is, as we well know, psychologically impossible under these circumstances. There must be for a time — according to standard prescription — a complete break with the old habit and a definite substitution of the new for it. Here is the warrant for the use of the direct method. This is the reason for immersing the learner completely in foreign sounds, constructions, words, intonation, etc., especially in the initial stages of his study or until the new habits have had time to form. This is the explanation also for the failure of translation methods to impart "a feeling for the language"; i.e., to establish new linguistic habits. The teacher of indirect methods is doomed to defeat since he is attempting to teach new habits in the environment of the old ones, and since his method is running counter to the most fixed modes of reacting on the part of the pupil.

Certainly we recognize that there may very properly be different aims in different schools and with different kinds of students, as in commercial, technical, or liberal-arts courses. We shall give some suggestions as to foreign language for technical courses in Chapter XIV. But for our schools in general, we are sure that direct-method work is wise.

We do not wish to be dogmatic. The old school had its merits, especially in America, where, until recently, the direct method was impossible, and where even yet it must be introduced gradually. And we recognize also that whenever conscientious pedagogues live nobly and do their best, even with the most defective methods, there the results are always worth while.

But what is the direct method, as the term is commonly used in the United States? It is, strictly speaking, the oral method without the use of the vernacular, as used in France since 1901, and in some schools of Germany. The more common method in Germany is the *Reform Methode*, officially recognized since 1902, which is also a direct method, but which allows more use of the vernacular, especially in the teaching of formal grammar.

The method, as we use it in the United States, is a compromise, like the German Reform Method; and while we commonly apply the name *direct* to it, it is a compromise between the old indirect method and the pure direct method. It makes use of indirect procedures; e.g., it teaches formal grammar in the mother tongue and uses translation from and, in some cases, into the foreign language. And then we find all gradations between this and the pure direct method. The latter is, however, found only very sporadically. But that is indefinite, it will be said. When shall we then allow a teacher to assert that he is using the direct method? I should say a good criterion is: Can his class understand the foreign language when spoken, and can they speak it sufficiently, so that the recitations on all but the lessons in formal grammar can be conducted entirely in the foreign language? If they do this habitually and successfully, then they have been employing the direct method.

We may well take a hint from the practice in Germany since the new method was introduced there some thirty or more years ago. There, the well-prepared teacher who embraced the new method introduced the new procedures gradually, and just as far as the conditions of his school and locality permitted. So will our teacher need to consider all the factors in the case: antecedent training of his students, temper of his school, time and facilities allotted, as well as his own limitations. He will not attempt to run or to fly when he can be sure of himself only in walking. For all our teachers to start in direct method, or for a school system or a state department to decree such a course, under our present conditions, were folly. We need only to visit a dozen average high schools to confirm this.

New York State now accredits teachers for the oral work upon their giving evidence of ability to teach it; otherwise their students are not accredited for this work. This is a move in the right direction.

The direct method does not need an advocate so badly as it did ten years ago. Even university presidents now go out of their way to speak a good word for it. "The man who cannot speak and write French and German does not know French and German."[1] We may safely say that the teachers who use it in some degree form the vast, indeed almost exclusive, majority.

We may set down here the principles of the direct teaching as they have generally been agreed upon by our best practice in the United States:

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[1] *Annual Report of the President of Columbia University*, pages 28–29, 1914.

1. Great care in teaching pronunciation, especially the first weeks and months.
2. Oral treatment of texts, before they are presented to the eye, although reading is the center of the instruction.
3. Grammar taught inductively in the sense to be indicated a little further on.
4. The written work based on matter which has been thoroughly assimilated by hearing and speaking it.
5. Translation reduced to a minimum and barred from *elementary* instruction.
6. Use of *realia.*

The inductive system of teaching grammar must receive special elucidation here. The old method used the deductive (analytical) method of approach. The rule was first stated and then sentences embodying the rule were studied. Later the rule was put into practice by writing new sentences; i.e., generally, by translating English sentences into the foreign language.

The new method uses the inductive (synthetic) mode of approach. That is, many phrases and sentences are heard and spoken and read and written, and, finally, when the class knows these individual forms quite well, the rule is told them, unless they can be led to discover it themselves.

The inductive method of teaching grammar means, strictly speaking, that the learner shall discover the rules of grammar for himself, after he has been made acquainted with many examples. A small minority among the European reformers set this up as a desirable goal, and sought, for a time, to carry it out; but today it is not practiced anywhere in its purity, unless very obscurely.

The reformers thought it a great find when they first hit upon the idea. The student's divine right to discovery was to be vindicated. It was, of course, a revulsion against the old "dry-as-dust" deductive grammatical study. It did very well for a time. It was all so interesting. The boys kept notebooks in which they entered and tabulated the grammatical forms as they met them, and finally they sought to discover the rules. It was very fine except for one slight circumstance: they couldn't do it! As an occasional exercise, an exercise under the active coöperation of the teacher, it does very beautifully; but serious research proved too much for adolescents. It was found hard and inexpeditious, and, like all hard, unrelieved drudgery, finally became monotonous.

The reformers had not only overrated the ability of their young learners; they had, even on the theoretical side, overshot the mark. Induction is, indeed, for children, and in the study of certain tangible phenomena even for adults, the surest, although a slow method of learning. But, in general, for adults and even late adolescents, the deductive learning is the most economical, since it does not require the learner to discover the general truths for himself, which is a long and wearisome process, but puts at his disposal the results of the researches of all time.

Thousands upon thousands had observed the falling of the apple to the earth, but it was left for Newton to discover the general truth, the law of gravitation. How would it do, for instance to require the student in geometry to deduce the principles? Mathematicians since the day of Archimedes have been working at that. No; in the geometry class the principle is stated, to be verified and later applied by the student. This is the best method in geometry. But in language teaching, the inductive method is best, but only to the point at which the learner has a full understanding of the rule when it is finally told him, or he is guided to discover it himself. The important thing is not that he discover the rule unaided — none of us teachers of modern language did that in our student days; the important thing is that he know the concrete forms so thoroughly that he can use them, and that he know the rule in order to keep all the concrete phenomena in some system in his mind.

Looking at it from the viewpoint of psychology, the inductive method is here best because the phenomena are thus introduced from various points of view and with varying appeal: hearing, speaking, reading, writing; i.e., to ear, vocal organs, eye and hand — and we know that to get a thorough grasp upon facts, thoroughly to apperceive them, this is the best method.

When it comes to deducing the rules of grammar, however, the youthful learner needs guidance, to say the least. It would tax even the best of teachers to deduce the rule, in case he had not read it in the grammar, where the great grammarian had put it decades, and even centuries, ago. How then should the pupil do so unaided? He may, indeed, be led to deduce the rules, but always under the active guidance of the teacher, and if the divine right to discover still fail to assert itself, he must be told outright. Of course he cannot deduce the rule before he knows the phenomena thoroughly. But as soon as he does, he should be asked to find the rule; i.e., solve the problem. The wisdom on the part of the teacher consists in guiding his thinking actively by suggestion, or, better still, by elimination of irrelevant and useless suggestions on the part of the class; for it goes without saying that this work cannot be assigned as home work. It must be done under the care of the teacher in the classroom. This is the proper meaning of the phrase *inductive study of grammar.*

In the United States we find today, besides the direct method, only the reading method in use — but a reading method quite unlike that described under this title in the Report of the Committee of Twelve, already quoted, which makes it altogether too similar to the grammar-translation method. The best conception of the reading method of today is that described in a useful experiment which was discussed, along with others, in Chapter I. Here the description of the reading method and its results interests us. It is as follows:

> The other method used, the Reading Method, as it may be called, is almost directly opposed to the Grammar Method just described. According to this second method the study of the language began at once with the reading of easy German stories, and ended with a brief systematic study of grammar. The discussion of the work as conducted falls into several parts, corresponding to the different periods into which it was divided.
>
> The first period of the work, occupying almost three months of time, was governed by the following principal aims:
>
> (1) To acquire a good pronunciation.
> (2) To learn a relatively large German vocabulary.
> (3) To develop, as much as possible in so short a time, a feeling for the German language, its form and use.
>
> To accomplish these aims the work was conducted as follows: Simple, easy German stories were read aloud, careful attention being given to pronunciation and expression. This reading was done, a sentence or two at a time, at first by the teacher and then by the students. For several periods at the beginning of the work every part of the new lesson was read first in class; and the home work of the students consisted in going over the same work trying to better their first attempts made in class. The meaning of each new word, when not evident from the context, was told in this class study, and the students were expected to remember it next day. Whenever possible, the new word was explained by a synonym already familiar to the students. The text first used, Foster's *Geschichten und Märchen*, was not provided with a vocabulary or with notes — it was selected partly because of this fact — so the students had to depend largely upon memory. Direct translations were not often called for, being required only when there was doubt as to the meaning. Instead of direct translations, questions were asked which would show whether the reader understood what he was reading. This was judged also by the expression with which it was read. The students knew, however, that at any time translations might be called for and they were usually ready to give

them. To give practice in understanding the spoken language, stories were often read, in German, to the class, and either the meanings of different passages called for at intervals or the content of the whole at the end. This last was given in English, necessarily. At other times students were asked to tell in German short stories or parts of stories which had been read in class. To do this, of course, special preparation on their part had to be made. Grammar in this first period was entirely incidental. It was introduced only when necessary or particularly helpful in understanding what was read, or in response to questions of students. Any grammatical fact which was thus introduced, however, was kept in mind and used from day to day. It was hoped and expected that even with this incidental attention, a good many things concerning grammar would be learned and in a concrete way.

On the whole, eighteen lesson periods were given to this work, leaving four more until the close of the year to devote to reading. Thus, in the study of the language according to this method, only one fifth of the time had been given to work in which the study of grammar was the leading aim.

It has been seen that the reading sections which gave the study of grammar much less emphasis than the grammar sections — and probably much less emphasis than is usually given this study in the first year's work — stood better in a grammar test given, before they had even begun on the final period of their work, the period devoted to grammar study. It has also been seen that these same sections stood decidedly better than the grammar sections in a reading test given toward the close of the year, after the grammar sections had spent a month and a half in reading. Moreover, the amount of reading material covered by the reading sections was very much more than that covered by the grammar sections. The former read two books and part of a third (230 pages in all), and the latter not quite one book (81 pages). This does not, of course, include the grammar text.

Earlier in this paper it was said that the methods were to be judged according to the comparative success with which the aims were realized and the problems connected with these aims were solved. It may be concluded, then, that, as far as the aims regarding grammar, pronunciation, and reading are concerned, the reading method, as used, has proved decidedly the better. Moreover, from what has been said it is evident that the reading method has been more successful in solving at least two of the problems raised: How learn grammar and yet not give this study undue emphasis? How acquire an easy reading knowledge and yet not be superficial? The aim concerned with speaking the language, and the problem connected with the interests of high-school students, yet remain to be discussed.

No specific test was given concerning the ability of the students in speaking German: this could best be judged by observation from day to day. Judging from this, then, it may be said unhesitatingly that in this respect the reading sections also ranked first.

We come finally to the problem of interest. Here, also, it may be said quite unhesitatingly that the reading method seemed better adapted to the interests of the students than did the grammar method. This statement is based not only upon careful observation of all classes, but upon the opinion expressed by the different supervisors and teachers and, more especially, by earnest students. During the first semester of the work the difference in interest between the two sections — that is, between reading and grammar sections — was very evident to those who went from one class into another for the purpose of observation. The reading sections were doing work of a more concrete character and it was natural that the reading sections should be more interested in the systematic study of grammar taken up after they had acquired a large German vocabulary and after they had learned, incidentally, many things concerning the formal side of the language, than were the grammar sections at the beginning of the year, when the language was new to them.

It may be concluded, then, from the study and comparison of these two methods, that the reading method, in that it has more nearly realized the aims of the first year's work in German and more successfully solved the problems connected with this work, is the better adapted for high-school use.[1]

These two methods, or variations of them, are the only ones which enjoy any vogue in the United States. However, for purposes of historical orientation the following notes are appended.

The first foreign language taught in Europe was Latin.

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[1] Clarahan, M., *op. cit.* in Chapter I.

It was not a dead language, as it was taught and employed in the monasteries and chancelleries. When the teachers taught it they naturally read and translated the texts, paying slight attention to the grammar as they proceeded. Later, in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, under the influence of the Renaissance, the study of Greek was taken up in the same way. Teaching now became a profession and gradually the science of classical philology was evolved. It became the delight of the teachers to dissect and analyze the text.

As might be expected, students did not long enjoy this kind of instruction, nor did they thrive on it. From the beginning of the seventeenth century down to our day, they have not ceased to call out against the unnaturalness of this mode of teaching.

However, the study of modern languages other than the mother tongue had not become a part of the course of instruction before the eighteenth century, and when it was introduced, it was quite natural that the method employed in teaching it should be the one in vogue for Latin and Greek.

If this method had proved objectionable for Latin and Greek, it was found to be doubly unsatisfactory for teaching modern languages. Various improvements were accordingly suggested from time to time,[1] but the results remained unsatisfactory. Even as late as a few decades ago it was found that students were learning rules, paradigms, and stray bits of classical literature, but when they went to the foreign country, Germany, France, or England, they were utterly helpless for all of their years of study of the foreign language. In the late seventies and early eighties of the last century there began consequently a widespread agitation for a reform, the upshot of which is the modern direct method, or methods. As this book is a course in our American approximation of the direct method, it is thought useless to append descriptions of the now antiquated grammar and so-called "natural" methods.[1]

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[1] Cf. Bahlsen, L., *The Teaching of Modern Languages*, pages 1–18 (Ginn & Co., Boston).

Problems

Evaluate, in per cent, ability in (1) grammar, (2) reading, (3) translating, (4) understanding the spoken language, (5) speaking it, for one who expects to become a correspondence clerk with a firm doing foreign business; for a scientific investigator; for a student of the humanities; for a teacher of the language concerned; for a girl who is to marry; for a boy who is to become a small tradesman, a farmer, or a mechanic.

How should these abilities be rated in our courses in the secondary schools? In an industrial school? In a trade school?

When is inductive study best? When deductive? Give various examples. Cf. Dewey, *How We Think*, pages 94 ff.; Bagley, W. C., *The Educative Process*, Chapters 19–20.

Write out a short chronology of methods. Bahlsen, *op. cit.*, Chapter 1.

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[1] For the growth of modern language as a school study and an account and bibliography of methods in the United States, cf. Handschin, *op. cit.*

CHAPTER THREE

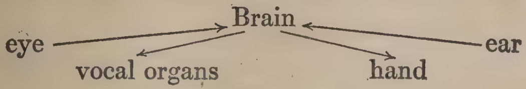
Skill, Discipline, and Enjoyment

GENERAL ASPECTS AND PRINCIPLES

Owing to the nature of the subject, skill must be an aim in modern-language teaching, while in mathematics, for instance, it is quite unnecessary. The sensory-motor apparatus (ear, eye, hand, and vocal organs) must be schooled in order that one may be able to use a spoken language effectively. Incidentally, it will be noticed what excellent schooling this study provides for an age when the pupil's sensory-motor control is still imperfect and when his reasoning faculty is only rudimentary — early adolescent or pre-adolescent age. By skill is meant, here, the acquisition and use of motor control in speaking and writing, the automatizing of mental and motor associations as in reading, and the automatizing of sensory and mental associations as in hearing a language.

In the peculiar organization of the human brain and nervous system lies our warrant for this work. Language is a form of human behavior, which expresses itself through the organs of speech and through the hand in the form of gestures or written or printed symbols. Such language-signs are interpreted by the individual through the eye upon seeing the gestures or the symbols, and through the ear when hearing the sounds.

Here is the starting point of the doctrine of the "multiple-sense appeal," so called. This is, in brief, that thought is most economically learned and assimilated when it is perceived by both eye and ear and when it is also expressed by the individual both by the vocal organs in speaking and by the hand in written speech. There are, under school conditions, only these two ways for thought to be received — unless by telepathy or intuition. It cannot be injected through the skin, like a hypodermic. There are only these two ways to express thought. The accompanying diagram may therefore show the ways between the brain and the end-organs.

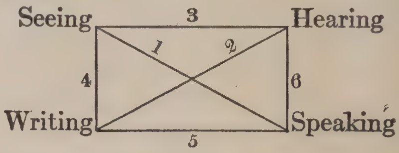


The facts of psychology which have a direct bearing upon these processes may be stated simply as follows: Physiological psychology teaches that four distinct centers of the brain are active in the acquisition of language, or may be employed in receiving or expressing thought; namely, the auditory, the visual, the motor-writing, and the motor-speech centers, the first two being sensory, the last two motor. The function of the auditory center is to receive sensory impressions through the nerve of hearing, that of the visual center to receive sensory impressions through the optic nerve; the motor-writing center controls the muscles of the arm and hand through the nerves to the end organ, in writing, while the motor-speech center similarly controls the muscles of the speech organs. It has been established, also, by experiment that the strength of the sensory impressions upon these centers varies with different individuals. Some persons get stronger images by one of the centers than by another; e.g., by the auditory than by the visual center. Moreover, the association areas of the brain, while yet little understood, are supposed to facilitate interaction between the various centers.

No matter what rôle, therefore, we must ascribe to ideation, generalization, etc., the part played by sensation and motor activity in the acquisition of language is of great importance, especially for youthful minds, in which the processes of reasoning are rudimentary and closely bound up with concrete cases.

Memory, too, is served by this method of acquiring language, for we now know that there is a memory for aural as well as for visual images. We know also that retentivity is more tenacious if the impressions (images) are multiplied, as in the case of multiple-sense learning, or when more associations of the matter (fact, etc.) are established, thus making apperception richer and richer.

There are several reasons, pedagogically, for the fact that ideas are best conveyed and linguistic habits best established in this way. First, as indicated before, an idea is got most surely by getting it from various viewpoints. Moreover, this method is time-saving, since two of these processes can be carried on simultaneously. The time-saving combinations are of the greatest importance, and should in practice never be lost sight of.



In addition, therefore, to the practice of the old school which employed (1) seeing and speaking simultaneously, and often not even these two, we should employ (2) hearing and writing, i.e., dictation; (3) hearing and seeing, i.e., fine interpretative reading on the part of the teacher; (4) seeing and writing, i.e., copying of select passages; (5) writing and speaking, i.e., doing home work in composition or transcription; and (6) hearing and speaking, i.e., concert reading in the class. For (5) the student needs the direction to speak aloud when doing his home work, not only when writing, but also when reading and memorizing.

Another point in favor of multiple-sense learning is the improvement of aural perception through the exercise of hearing. Another good point is the fine balance between reception and expression, perception and motor discharge, in this way of learning.

To be sure, one needs to remember that, as indicated above, some individuals learn better through the eye, others by speaking, etc. In general, it seems that Americans have stronger visual images than aural or kinæsthetic. But should this lead us to teach only through the eye? Not only Americans, but all who have been taught predominantly through the eye, have stronger visual images. The Greeks, because of their predominantly oral training, no doubt, had not.

And are we not doing more teaching through the ear, and by self-expression again today? Would not teaching through the eye predominantly lead to atrophy of the other powers? Indeed, is this not precisely what has occurred in the case of most cultured modern adults? At least the most bookish never know a thing unless they see it in print. The wise teacher will seek to accommodate the visualizers in his class as far as convenient. Especially in the case of adult students this must often be done. But if some individuals do learn predominantly through the eye, is not every addition to this aggregate which they may get through ear and hand and vocal organs doubly welcome to them in their handicap with their more fortunate fellows in the same class? And, besides, adolescents, with whom we are largely concerned, can soon be trained to work successfully in all four ways. For adults the multiple-sense teaching would be less advisable.

It is to be noted here, in conclusion, that the best order for these processes has been established by experiment to be hearing, speaking, reading, writing.

DISCIPLINE AND ENJOYMENT

Not "formal discipline" is meant, of course. Educational psychology doubts a large transfer of training from one branch of study to another unless it is set up and consciously aimed at as an end. Since, then, a transfer of training in the psychological sense is not so great as formerly supposed, we must seek the disciplinary value, just as we do in the case of any study, in the *habits of study* and in *generalized habits*, ingrained by the study. That is, if a study has not a sufficient body of classified knowledge and is not carefully and thoroughly taught with a conscious ideal and a well-thought-out plan for effecting such transfer, then it is not disciplinary. In this chapter we shall show wherein consist the disciplinary values of modern-language teaching if the program is set up with the idea of effecting the transfer of training.

Writers on modern-language teaching have often failed in the past to employ a scientific terminology, and have therefore failed to fixate the phenomena. In discussing aims in modern-language teaching, our writings on this subject prevalently speak of reading, speaking, and culture, as aims. Now if we look at the matter from the viewpoint of educational psychology, we name the aim from the sort of mental-nervous processes induced and mental-nervous habits formed. Thus the aims must be named quite differently, namely, as modern-language instruction in general goes: skill, discipline, information, and enjoyment.

These aims will make for more clear-cut procedures in the classroom; i.e., the teacher will know in each sort of work at what he is aiming, and conversely, he will know what sort of work to employ when striving for certain results. Thus, many a teacher did not know, for instance, which of his aims the analysis of a construction subserved.

The reason for setting up disciplinary values as an aim may be stated tersely as follows: because our other aims (skill, information, enjoyment) do not touch the problem of reflective thinking at all. Skill, as in speaking, reading, and writing, aids habit formation, helps to organize the nervous-motor centers, and thus helps ultimately to form character; information can do only one thing, i.e., furnish data, suggestions, for the solution of problems; enjoyment in modern-language teaching subserves primarily practical and æsthetic ends, and aids in arousing interest by making the subject pleasant.

But with all of this we have not yet provided for thinking; that is, the act of thought. And still this is an important, if not the most important, thing which schools should teach and make habitual. And, besides reflective thinking, there are various aspects of discipline; e.g., discipline of the will, of the memory, discipline in careful arrangement, clear statement, and several other habits and generalized habits, which need to be ingrained in the student, while others need to be inhibited.

The question *how* to secure discipline to the pupil we will answer on the basis of present knowledge as follows: by a careful, thorough manner of work. This means, for one thing, that the teacher should know at what he is aiming in each kind of work, whether at discipline, skill, information, or enjoyment. Every exercise should serve one or more of these aims, and it is important that the teacher shall have thought this out clearly in advance. For example, in an exercise in grammatical analysis or synthesis, or whenever a question involving a problem is asked, the pupil must be left to his own resources, except for slight suggestions to direct the thought. Here the teacher must learn to give time for reflection and not to tell prematurely.

The case is quite different when drilling for skill. Here swift questioning and answering, and passing by a student who cannot answer swiftly, is required. Thoroughness generally comes with systematic treatment; at least we may say that there can be no thoroughness without systematic arrangement. Now thoroughness does not mean encyclopedic treatment, as is so often supposed. Indeed, encyclopedic, or exhaustive, treatment of a subject in the classroom is often the greatest enemy of thoroughness. Unfortunately, our colleges have long indulged in such treatment, and their graduates have often carried the tendency down to the middle schools.

This is what we mean by encyclopedic treatment: in teaching a modern language, instead of teaching a few necessary phenomena of grammar, and drilling them until semi-automatic speech habits have become fixated, the old style was to teach all the rules and exceptions concerning a special phenomenon, say the accusative case, without leading up to the rules by many concrete examples and without the necessary drill in the phenomena to fix a single reaction. Hence the task imposed was one for the memory only, while the nervous system, and often the intellect as well, knew nothing about what was going on. And since sufficient iterative use was not called for, it was soon forgotten.

Thorough teaching must mean treating a limited number of phenomena intensively, with as strong and frequent impression and expression as possible — *multiple-sense appeal* — and from as many different points of attack as possible — through the numerous devices now known and used in the daily work, and in reviews, quizzes, etc.

Thorough teaching must mean also that this be done with all the energy possible, both on the part of the teacher and on the part of the student. Vitalization of whatever the pupil does is the prime aim, and this can be best achieved, as far as the manner of work is concerned, by working at top-notch speed and pressure. We must demand good postures, too, and erect, vigorous bearing, full use of lungs, eyes, ears, vocal organs, and hands. The lackadaisical lolling one sees in some schools, the slovenly manner of walking, sitting, standing, of using vocal organs and eyes and ears, cannot go hand in hand with thoroughness.

To be sure, when reflective thinking is to be done, the teacher will not push by word and example, as is necessary in drill work. This task requires less vigorous outward manner on the part of the teacher, but all the more mental alertness; that is, in helping to formulate, or locate, and delimit the problem, supplying additional hypotheses when needed, eliminating useless or irrelevant suggestions, and making sure that the pupil recognizes the conclusion when he has reached it.

This brings us to problem-teaching. The aim is, as indicated, to train in reflective thought. Problem-teaching may, in general, be characterized as the opposite of the encyclopedic treatment already alluded to, with its broad inclusive treatment of all facts known in the given subject, the mode of assimilation being chiefly by memorizing. Another characteristic of encyclopedic teaching is that it rarely makes the necessary interrelations between the various phenomena treated, thus leaving the facts in the mind as a loose aggregation of data, none of which call up the proper and useful correlatives and associations. In the main, this encyclopedic treatment is mere telling, and we know how disastrous the "telling" method has been in our schools.

Because of the unsatisfactory nature of this procedure, scholars have in recent times come to advocate a quite opposite tendency, especially for children, which consists in restricting the material to be taught, and teaching this mostly inductively; i.e., observing many, or a number of, typical, concrete instances (phenomena) before developing the general principle governing them, and then taking much drill in additional concrete phenomena (application). That is, students are taught to solve the problem, rather than given the conclusion, general principle, or rule in advance.

To get a little more light on this procedure, let us ask: What is the use of information such as is conveyed by the old "telling" method? There can be only one answer: to serve as suggestions or hypotheses toward the solution of problems which may arise in the pupil's life. The only use he has for information is to help him solve life's problems. To be sure, there may be problems also of æsthetic enjoyment, but even here information serves, and can serve, only for solving problems.

What are the steps in solving problems? Dewey, in *How We Think*,[1] says:

> Upon examination, each instance (of reflective thought) reveals, more or less clearly, five logically distinct steps: (1) a felt difficulty; (2) its location and definition; (3) suggestion of possible solution; (4) development by reasoning of the bearings of the suggestion; (5) further observation and experiment leading to its acceptance or rejection; that is, the conclusion of belief or disbelief.

It may be noted that in practice steps (1) and (2) fuse into one, as do also (3) and (4). We have then: (1) the problem and its delimitation; (2) the hypotheses as to a conclusion and the testing out of these hypotheses until one only remains (conclusion); and (3) application, or additional testing of the conclusion reached.

It may be useful also to refer here to the great similarity of this process and the steps in teaching known as the Herbartian formal steps, which consist of (1) analysis (apperception) and the outline of the aim; (2) presentation of facts, phenomena, concrete data, and comparison of these until a generalization is reached; (3) application of this principle or conclusion to new phenomena, or renewed drill. It will be noted that I take the method of the Neo-Herbartians and subsume in three steps what is often, and formerly was prevalently, given in five.

Now observe the antipodal difference between the old and the new way of teaching. The old offers broad strata of information in deductive systems, begins with abstract definitions and general terms which the learner must seek to grasp, but rarely can grasp fully, before he knows the concrete instances. His mind is led at best to think in inane abstractions, in theory; at worst is not led to think at all, but merely to memorize without interest. These two evils have made and are making book-people, people who at best are wise in information about isolated departments of science, but utterly helpless when confronted by tangible problems either of professional or everyday life. Along with this style of teaching went generally neglect of physical and moral education, and so we got a poor physical and social individual, besides. The new education, on the other hand, takes full cognizance of the physical and social man. For do not our most important problems arise out of these very relations, making problem-solving as important here as in the purely intellectual matters? If problem-solving is the business of life, we certainly cannot afford to pass by the most important problems. Even recognizing the problems is half the business. How often have we all failed to recognize important problems!

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[1] Boston, 1910, page 72.

To take an illustration from language teaching, therefore, we begin with many concrete instances of the thing to be taught: numerous examples of the order in subordinate clauses in German, or the use of the disjunctive pronoun in French. Before the student is led to recognize the rule, the examples have been so ingrained in his nervous system by hearing, speaking, seeing, and writing them that the speech reactions are established. He should then be invited to discover the rule, if possible, always with the aid of the teacher's suggestions. This is, then, plainly a case of problem-solving. Or to take the matter from another angle, the natural method, being quite purely imitative, failed to set and to require the solution of problems as frequently as should be done. If, for instance, the teacher says, *Je vais à la porte*, the following are the judgments formed by the student by guessing from the gesticulation (action) or reasoning with the aid of previous knowledge. *Je* means *I* — *vais* means *go* — *à la* means *to the* — *porte* means *door*. The rest is purely memory work. The grammar-translation method was strong in the matter of setting problems. It had the defect that the problems, because of their monotonous and unrelieved character — unintermittent translation — became entirely uninteresting and hence repulsive and therefore often useless. In the direct method we may reap the advantages of the grammar-translation method, but avoid its defect, by varying the work, employing more powers, and working on material which has present-day interest.

To demonstrate how far removed the direct method is, in its disciplinary aspects, from the purely imitative method, I may instance a simple example of direct-method work. Each discrimination between two cases, numbers, genders, persons, tenses, modes, is arrived at only by a process of thought. Thus, take the task to turn the following sentence from the plural into the singular: "*Die alten Männer sagen sie sind* (*seien*) *in die Häuser gegangen.*" This problem — and similar problems might be set, and are set, dozens and dozens of times in a single recitation — calls for the following judgments:

The subject stands in the nominative case. *Die alten Männer* is the subject. Therefore it stands in the nominative case. I need the nominative singular of *Männer*. The nominative singular of *Männer* is *Mann*. Therefore, I need the form *Mann*. What gender has this word? Names of distinctly male beings are masculine. *Mann* is the name of a being distinctly male. Therefore, it is masculine. I need the nominative, singular, masculine of the definite article *die*. *Der* is the nominative, singular, masculine form of the definite article *die*. Therefore I need the form *der*. I must change the ending of the adjective *alt* to correspond in number, gender, and case with *Mann*. But there are weak and strong endings. Which shall I choose? When a *dieser* form precedes the adjective, a weak ending is used. A *dieser* form here precedes. Therefore, I use a weak ending here.

And now, discarding the syllogistic form for the sake of brevity, I want the nominative, masculine, singular of the weak ending. It is *e*. *Sagen* is the third person, plural, indicative of *sagen*. I want the third person, singular, present, indicative. The third person, indicative is *sagt*. *Sie* is the third person, plural, of the personal pronoun. I want the third person, singular. *Er* is the third person, singular. *Seien* is the third person, plural, present, subjunctive of *sein*. I want the third, singular, corresponding. It is *sei*. Shall I use the subjunctive or the indicative mode? The rule is that in indirect discourse, which this is, the indicative is preferable, if the verb of the principal clause stands in the present tense. That is the case here. I choose the indicative. The third person, singular, indicative, present of *sein* is *ist*, which I choose. *Häuser* is plural. It is in the accusative, because it stands after *in* and the verb implies motion to a place. I want the accusative, singular of *Häuser*. The accusative, singular is *Haus*. *Haus* is neuter. I want the accusative, singular, neuter of the definite article. The accusative, singular, neuter of the definite article is *das*. I have changed the sentence from the plural into the singular.

It is plain that the training in modern languages fairly bristles with logical thinking and, moreover, the direct-method devices yield themselves to logical thinking as well as the old method.

The matter chosen and put into the beginner's book should be chosen with a view to offering typical material for problem-solving. But if books do not do this, the teacher has at least this possibility at hand: to give the acquaintance with the new phenomena orally — for many lessons, if necessary — before a rule is elaborated and before the student is referred to the book where the rule is stated. Thus the knowledge obtained becomes dynamic in that it is all got with a view to its use-value in problem-solving, although not necessarily with a view to its immediate utilitarian value.

Again, in our new pedagogy the material is chosen from things near by, so that it can be observed at first hand, instead of, as formerly, often from fields remote in time and space from the pupil. Thus his attention becomes fixed on the actual world about him, or at least upon dynamic, typical phases of past and distant life so that all may function actively in his own life.

This, it will be noticed, brings also a new viewpoint to the teacher himself. He naturally becomes interested in what is actually about him, his environment and his students. Especially, since, all at once, his students are no longer mere receptacles of information, but living personalities, which are to be prepared for life's great work.

Discipline is gained, further, by long and difficult tasks for the will, which aid in forming the habit to do prolonged hard work. Will-training in the *moral* aspects will be taken up later. Here we are concerned with the will to stay by a task. This is important. There has been in some quarters a softening of the tasks of school, as a revulsion, no doubt, against the old unnecessary unpleasantness and hardness of schooling. This is, of course, an error, due to mistaking the fact that severe tasks may, if introduced with the proper stimuli, be interesting and therefore satisfying, and that easy tasks, if bare of the proper stimuli, may be uninteresting and therefore unsatisfactory.

Training to do hard tasks and to do them at set times, to stay by them to a satisfactory conclusion, is the best sort of training for life and may not be omitted from schoolroom training with impunity. Is this not the reason for our setting hard and long tasks and insisting upon their performance every day, and not sporadically, as might suit the whim of the student?

There are many kinds of work upon which to train the will. We must not forget, however, that many of the reactions we are working for (skill) should be reduced to semi-automatic habits which require no, or very little, thought and therefore no, or little, effort of the will. For instance, it takes no will-power for a man to raise his hat when greeted by a lady, to unfold his napkin when seated at table, or to insert a key in a keyhole. Similarly many modes of expression and impression must become automatic.

But there remains an abundance of tasks for training the will; for instance, getting out a long lesson in the prescribed way, instead of choosing an easier but less thorough manner. Even standing, sitting, and pronouncing nicely must long be performed as a conscious act of the will, before they become habitual.

One of the best exercises for the will is memorizing. We know there is a tendency in some quarters to make school tasks easy by omitting memory work. This, of course, is a reaction against overemphasis on memory work in former periods. But, of course, there must be memory work. Education through play may be very fine, if the goal is play education. It is a grave mistake to omit memory work, although to overdo it is just as bad. For instance, oftentimes a course in elementary language is so conducted as to require nothing but memory work. This mistake may be made in a direct-method as well as in an old-style grammar-translation course. Hence the importance of the sort of work outlined above.

Why must there be memory work? Not in order to store up dead facts in the mind which are never used in class or outside of it, but in order to obtain the necessary data to solve the problems which will be set in class, and, in the case of elementary language work, must be set over and over again.

Without such data the problems cannot be solved. There may be *a priori* theorizing, but no safe conclusions without a stock of data to serve as suggested conclusions. And the more data to serve as hypotheses, the surer will be the conclusion, other things being equal.

For this purpose, we need a retentive memory and the swift and accurate power of recall. Without such power you get the person who may be able to reason very fairly if you supply all the necessary information, but by himself is hopelessly dependent upon the encyclopedia and handbook, which of course, in some lines of endeavor, there is no time for consulting.

The moral aspects of will-training are not less important.

"Knowledge of Civics is not the most pressing need of our schools. The first and most pressing need is the exercise of civic virtues."[1] The need of teaching the proper social, as well as the proper physical and intellectual, conduct is unquestioned. Now some will insist that moral training is not within the province of the teacher. But how about our uppermost educational tenet, that character formation is the supreme end of all education? We may as well say that neither is the physical welfare of the student any concern of any one except the teacher of physical training. But in this domain all teachers recognize their responsibility. Otherwise why do we ask such questions as these: What are the hygienic conditions of my classroom — ventilation, heating, lighting? How about the postures of the students? Are they getting sufficient exercise? Are the students properly nourished?

Now there is no department of moral education in our schools, and there is no tendency to establish one, but does that not lay upon the various teachers a greater responsibility as to the moral training of their students? For that we all believe in bringing about the proper social behavior is undoubted. Many may indeed say that the teacher's life and habits are all that is necessary here, and we all recognize the great importance of the example. But in teaching our own children at home, do we not teach by precept as well as by example, and especially do we not insist upon the precept being carried out, and carried out habitually?

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[1] Kerschensteiner, George, *Education for Citizenship*, page 97. Translated by A. J. Pressland (Rand-McNally & Co., Chicago; 1911).

The first civic virtue is, I presume, honesty, and it we need above all to cultivate in our students. The honor system as it is operated in some schools is indeed a fine ideal, but all who are conversant with its working know that it needs to be nurtured and administered with the greatest wisdom.

There are many questions here which fairly bristle with viewpoints for the moral training of our students, and the teacher needs to be alive to all of these. He needs to be keen to discover and control dishonesty in work done at home or in the class. The modern-language teacher will do well to read up standard authorities on the moral training of students. (See references below.)

The following typical device for control of children may serve as an example of simple devices. Any member of the class who has failed to make proper preparation is requested to report that at the beginning of the hour. He is then allowed to keep his book open and to get any help which he can get during the hour. At the beginning of the next hour he is expected to report on the preceding lesson. He hands in his written work and is then sent to the board to write a synopsis of the assignment which he missed.

Since infringements upon the honor system must be punished, persons who are found not reporting lack of preparation should be marked down and still be asked to make up the work just as the others who have reported it. Dishonesty in every form must be definitely stamped as a grave misdemeanor. On the other hand, the teacher should set a high example for absolute veracity and frankness. By doing so he will gain the support of the best elements of the class for these ideals.

And then consider the heterogeneous elements in our city schools. How shall many of these learn the American ideals, social habits, and modes of thought, if not in school?

Is the public school not the school of citizenship and of morality as well? The Sunday school is not universally attended, and besides the pupil spends from 25 to 30 times as much time in the common school. Moreover, we know that adolescence is the golden period of habit formation. Have we teachers, then, no responsibility?

Socialization of the individual has become a definite and well-established aim in our educational system. But the word has been used loosely, especially among writers on modern-language teaching. It is used with such varying significance that a definition here seems desirable. For instance, writers[1] have used the term to mean: (1) making the life of the foreign nation real to the students; (2) making the teaching effective by providing stimuli through the use of illustrative material, games, etc.; (3) making the recitation more informal in order to enlist greater activity.

Now number 1 above is not included in our common conception of socialization at all, and, in general, socialized education means more predominantly "education related to life," as the following definitions show:

> Social education is here defined as any form of education, the primary and controlling purpose of which is to affect group activities in accordance with the demands of modern civilized society. Social education includes moral, ethical, political, and a large part of religious education. It is directed towards the formation of the habits, the development of the appreciations, the imparting of the knowledge and the formation of the ideals that underlie effective participation in group activities, such as those of the home, the state, and society generally.[2]

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[1] *Modern Language Journal,* 1: 100 ff.; also University of Illinois Bulletin 11, No. 17, pages 231 ff.

[2] Monroe, P. (editor), *Principles of Secondary Education,* page 759 (The Macmillan Company, New York; 1914).

> Under the influence of the ideal of an "education related to life," which has been especially effective during the last few decades, the social efficiency of the public-school system has in the more progressive communities been vastly increased.
>
> Through an enrichment of the content of instruction and a closer adaptation of it to the special needs of the individual, the modern school is giving a more adequate preparation for the responsibilities and opportunities which are encountered in a highly specialized civilization.[1]

What we mean, then, in practice by socialization is (1) training for effective citizenship largely by inculcating habits comporting with the social life of the community and the nation; (2) getting more points of touch between home and school life; (3) making teaching more human, not, as some misguided persons seem to think, by more social life, such as dances, parties, in the school but by less unnaturalness in our work and our methods of teaching, in order to enlist greater interest on the part of the learners.

To all of this the modern-language teacher must be alive. But what are the special media in his possession to accomplish this? Partly they have already been indicated in this chapter.

We must recognize at once that the material which the modern-language teacher teaches is quite different from that used, for instance, by the teacher of American history, institutions, and literature.

Very few of our studies have yet been adapted to this socializing process. Is chemistry, biology, mathematics, or English taught, are the textbooks in these subjects constructed, with the view of making the pupil a better citizen? It is plain that this viewpoint has not been embodied in many of our school texts.

In modern-language work, no attempts at socialization have been made until very recently, and the possibilities and procedures have not yet been fully worked out. Several persons are now working along these lines. The references given in this chapter, and this chapter itself, may be taken as suggestive beginnings.

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[1] Monroe, P., *Encyclopedia of Education,* article "The School as a Social Center."

It is well here to envisage this question as far as it concerns modern-language work. Because of the possibility that students may be taught to be enthusiastic Frenchmen, Germans, or Spaniards, a word of caution is also necessary. The war has taught us that numerous American teachers have become partisans of the foreign civilization. This is excellent, if it means that they teach their students the fine points of foreign civilization, for emulation. If it means that teachers are, or become, so engrossed by the supposed superiority of the foreign civilization as to magnify it above the American, it is reprehensible.

Our brief for the study of the foreign civilization is to be found in Chapter X. Suffice it here to state that our best pedagogical practice heartily approves of this study, because of its stimuli to interest, the data it transmits, and as a factor in international conciliation.

But the war has shown that there is danger here. This danger must be obviated for the future. All teaching of the foreign civilization must be done in a nonpartisan spirit. The study of the foreign civilization may very properly be used as a socializing force, provided always that it is not done in an overenthusiastic French, German, or Spanish spirit, that American ideals are never lost sight of, that, if certain American institutions and customs must be criticized, this be done not in a belittling spirit, but in the spirit of opening the learners' eyes to the necessity of improving them.

We have come to the point where we need to have, not the jingo or spread-eagle type of American consciousness, but a deep-rooted conviction of the worth of the United States in and by herself, as a nation which has her own problems, her own ways and knows her worth, but which also recognizes her responsibility as a nation among nations. Any other teaching of the foreign civilization has no place in our schools.

There must be will-training. Why not, then, use it as an ally in the educative process? Are appeals to the will not as necessary, even for purely intellectual work, as appeals to the intellect? Study without interest, we say, is dead. But without enlisting the will, there is no primitive interest and hence little progress or acquisition.

And let us remember, as Professor Dewey says:

> Since problems of conduct are the deepest and most common of all the problems of life, the way in which they are met has an influence that radiates into every other mental attitude, even those remote from any direct or conscious moral consideration. *Indeed, the deepest plane of the mental attitude of every one is fixed by the way in which the problems of behavior are treated.*[1]

Thus we see how a high order of thinking and a high order of moral acting are irrevocably bound up together.

Discipline comes further by clear statement of facts, principles, and problems. Incidentally, we have here to combat the lack of orderliness and of form of our American student. Can the teacher afford to allow a student to muddle a problem, or to state a principle or rule so that it bears on its face the mark of confusion? Clear statement is impossible without clear understanding of the matter, and conversely, confused statement invariably witnesses to confused notions and imperfect recall. And the habits formed when students are allowed to go on in a slovenly manner are quite ineradicable. Whoever accepts the muddled statement of a rule, fact, or principle contributes by just so much to the habit of carelessness and inaccuracy in the student.

Besides, unclear statement of a problem makes the solution harder, and often impossible. Incidentally, there is here the possibility for the teacher to school himself in precision of statement, in the clear thinking-out of problems, which may bring him great profit personally. Analysis is so fine an operation, and association, which goes with it, requires so active a mind, that we ourselves need constant drill in these, and thus even for one whose character is fully formed and whose nervous responses are completely organized, there is here continued pleasurable mental activity in improving his power of analysis, synthesis, and clear statement.

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[1] Dewey, J., *How We Think*, page 54.

Another point which makes for habit-schooling is systematic and neat papers, careful spelling, and pronunciation. The first can be got among us generally only from girls, and not from all of these. But that character expresses itself through them, and more important that character is formed by them, is unquestioned. Why not reject slovenly and unintelligible papers uniformly? It may necessitate curtailing the assignment, perhaps.

As to neatness, the characteristically fine German and French handwriting should be stimulating here.

In phonetics we have as excellent a science as in grammar, and while we will teach it only as an applied art, the teacher may give the student glimpses of the science as may be necessary.

Our pronunciation of English is not what might be desired. Speech habits may not be transferable to any high degree, but the power to work at speech habits and the generalized habit of precision in the use of the speech apparatus is transferable. Above all, the training in accuracy in regard to an important ever-present complex of motor-sensory forces — for I mean here hearing as well as speaking — is invaluable for forming habits, whether the student needs later to be able to pronounce French, German, or Spanish or not.

Discipline should extend also the habits of punctuality and politeness. Punctuality should be practiced not only in coming to class on time and regularly, but also in getting written work in promptly.

The apparatus for teaching politeness, as well as some of the other points mentioned, is slight, and can be afforded by any school. And, other things being equal, ought not the polite teacher to be set high above others?

It is obvious that many pupils will never learn politeness — i.e., the proper social reactions to cultured behavior — unless it is taught them in school. Here also the teacher of foreign language has an unforced opportunity to introduce this teaching. How Spanish and German and French politeness contrasts with the formlessness often current among us! In European schools I have seen boys rise as a visitor entered or left the room, I have seen them bring him a book, show him a seat, and in the halls or yard allow him to pass first, all without a word from the teacher.

Is this not an opportunity to inculcate politeness while at the same time introducing the spirit of the foreign classroom?

Now it is very plain that in all the matters mentioned the discipline depends largely upon the teacher, his ways of thinking, of acquiring data, of reacting to stimuli, of deporting himself, and of doing the work which must be done in the classroom.

Has the teacher a thorough, systematic way of working and a clear manner of presenting a subject? In problem-solving, does he exhaust the suggestions before fixing on a conclusion; i.e., does he practice the habit of suspending judgment? Or does he jump at conclusions not only in intricate intellectual problems, but in all his intercourse with others, including his students? To go further, does he fly into a rage at times? For rage would not solve the problem, for instance, of overcoming a student's duplicity. Such conduct would mean that he had not solved the problem but had jumped to a conclusion (in the case of a habitual spitfire, a mere nervous reaction) without envisaging the problem; i.e., all the possible suggestions toward a satisfactory conclusion. Does the teacher work assiduously at long and difficult tasks, or is he a slacker, or just an impulsive worker? Does he himself force his memory to act with accuracy? Is he clear and systematic in his statements, a careful speller, neat in his papers and his pronunciation? Is he punctual and polite?

And then the teacher's extramural activity is only less important. We often say the unconscious influence of the teacher's life is the thing. But we must not forget that that becomes for the student merely an ideal, if it is really of a high order, an ideal of the mind and heart, and ideals merely rise up to condemn at times. What is necessary is to make certain ways of thinking and doing habitual in the students. That is why talks cannot make these changes. Habit is nine tenths of life, psychology tells us! These things must be practiced and practiced until nervous reactions are firmly established and habits of thinking and doing formed and made semi-automatic, if not automatic, and thus character made stable.

Enjoyment or pleasure in the study should be one accompaniment of every study as far as feasible, for enjoyment — the feeling of pleasure — renders the mind more open to suggestions and creates the receptive mood which is necessary to facilitate acquisition of facts and principles. To make study pleasurable is not equally possible in all subjects. In case it is less possible the teacher will need to appeal to the student on the basis of the eventual profit from the study for practical or other purposes and to establish interest on the basis of this. This is entirely possible with adults, but less so with adolescents. In cases where the study can be made pleasurable it is easier to create interest, since no feeling of disinclination has to be overcome. In modern languages considerable pleasure can be given through pleasing the artistic sense with pictures of scenes, persons, objects in which we wish and need to arouse interest; by singing songs, the acquisition of which is useful in the study; by hearing music, recitations, dramatic work in the foreign language, the hearing of which is useful in the study of the language. Then, too, there are ways of giving pleasure in class work by allowing the student to develop a sense of mastery in reading, reciting, speaking, drawing maps. It gives a feeling of enjoyment, too, when he receives the praise of the master and the visible approbation of the class for such work.

To give such pleasure to the student should be one of the concerns of the teacher, and should be carefully planned always and cultivated. If acquisition is made more pleasurable than unpleasurable, we need not show that it has values at all in order to keep students working. But of course this is quite impossible; hence there must be held up again and again throughout the course, and daily in some form, the value of the acquisition to the student. Indeed, values must be worked out in every lesson. How this can be done is shown in detail in the various chapters of this book. The teacher should make a thorough study of this and put it into practice increasingly.

We must remember finally that enjoying a thing must be made habitual if it is to be continued in later life, as it should be. What habits of enjoyment of this sort can we form in modern-language classes? First and foremost: reading for pleasure. This is entirely possible, as we know from experience. Even Latin and Greek are read by some in this way in after life. How much more interest is the modern language able to foster, since the civilization of which it treats is still extant and is daily being touched on, in the newspapers, magazines, pulpits, rostrums, in conversations, in the children's schoolbooks, even if in America we may not all come into contact every day with representatives of a particular foreign language. Nothing is easier to handle as an avocation, or hobby, than the knowledge of one of the contemporary nations. To be up in astronomy, bacteriology, or cuneiform inscriptions as an avocation requires much time and erudition. To keep posted in French, German, or Spanish affairs through a knowledge of the language is comparatively easy and inexpensive, provides a valuable alternative in occupation and can hardly fail to be of real value to one's self and country, since such knowledge is becoming increasingly valuable for trade and international relations. A love of reading and ability to judge ideas, then, is the main thing we should inculcate for pleasure or enjoyment.

Pleasure can be got also from contact with pictures, art, lectures, dramatics, even if the student never leaves the United States. To create this habit is also a part of our schooling. How, will be shown in Chapter X.

There is, therefore, a whole realm of habits which must be nurtured consciously throughout the course. In them lie largely the values which we can work out for the great mass of our students; and, indeed, no student should take a course in modern language, no matter how short, without getting something of these values.

Problems

Can you think of any warrant for appealing to the feelings and the will of the student? Write out your ideas before reading the following reference. Monroe, *Principles of Secondary Education*, Chapter 8.

Write a brief for teaching by the problem-solving method and supply several actual detailed examples from Dewey, *How We Think*, pages 167–169; also Parker, *Methods of Teaching in High Schools*, Chapter 9; also several original problems.

What is the doctrine of formal discipline, and the movement away from this doctrine? Do you think that the movement toward more direct methods in teaching modern languages is a part of the general reaction against the doctrine of formal discipline? Colvin, *The Learning Process*, Chapter 14; Kappert, *Psychologische Grundlagen des Neusprachlichen Unterrichts*, Chapter 1 (Leipzig; 1915. 112 pages).

CHAPTER FOUR

PRONUNCIATION

LITTLE attention was paid to pronunciation in teaching modern languages before speaking them became a desideratum. Since so little was known about the one-time pronunciation of Latin and Greek, and since these languages were not learned to be spoken, little attention was paid to their phonetic qualities. Naturally this attitude was carried over into the teaching of the modern languages. The movement toward a more exact pronunciation was simultaneous with the founding of the science of phonetics by the great pioneers in this study, Rapp, Ellis, Brucke, Bell, and Helmholtz.[1]

In our own day others have made further researches and have applied this science more especially to our modern-language teaching. To these works the reader is referred for more specialized study. Our beginners' books and grammars also customarily offer a short introduction to pronunciation. If these are scientific, — i.e., do not employ mere layman's approximations of the foreign sounds, but base on scientific phonetics, — the advanced student and teacher may use them profitably. If they employ mere approximations, such as "German *i* in *ich* is like *i* in *pin*," they are useless and even harmful, and should be avoided.

The value of a good pronunciation is now generally conceded whenever a speaking ability, or the ability to understand the foreign language when spoken, is the aim, and still more so whenever the language is to be used for practical purposes, as in the case of training for a profession or a commercial career, or in the training of teachers of modern languages.

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[1] For titles of the works of these pioneers and other European treatises the reader is referred to the encyclopedia. For purposes of orientation the teacher will find our recent American works on the phonetics of the languages here concerned more valuable. For these see Appendix A. Most of them contain also bibliographies.

But there is a deeper reason than merely the need of a good pronunciation in order to make ourselves understood, a reason which has often been overlooked. I will undertake to show this. The sense, and consequently the understanding, of a word depends upon its correct pronunciation, even if it is pronounced only mentally; that is, if the foreign language has been heard more or less, and in any classroom this will be the case. As a proof of this we find that the student often gets the meaning as soon as the teacher pronounces the word correctly, perhaps because of analogy to the cognate English word, or to a root of the foreign language which he knows, but which he had not recognized before the word was pronounced correctly. This matter of pronunciation becomes more important still if we include in it the word accent and sentence rhythm, as we should. A word or sentence wrongly stressed, even in the mother tongue, becomes unintelligible for us. But, some one will insist, if a word is unknown to the student he will naturally not know how to stress it. That is, however, not true. In German, for instance, the student learns that the accent is on the root syllable, which is, almost without exception, the first syllable, that in French it is on the last syllable of a stress group. Hence, pronouncing properly even unknown words is possible, and the meaning of many words which he has heard pronounced can and will be called up again when they are pronounced properly. Or, to express it in terms of psychology, pronunciation — aural impressions — serves as an added means of forming associations. Sound images call up the meanings in these cases where the other associations fail.

For representing the actual sounds of a language an alphabet of symbols is employed. That is, in French and German the spelling is not consistent; in other words, a letter does not always stand for the same sound. For instance, in German, *g* initially is a voiced back stop; finally it is a back or front spirant, depending upon whether a back or front vowel precedes it. French shows abundant similar discrepancies; for example, *ai* = *e*. This leads to mispronunciation on the part of the learner. But the symbols of the phonetic alphabet represent each only one sound. The best pronunciation can be learned only by keeping from the learner the normal texts and substituting therefor phonetic transcriptions so that the unphonetic spelling may not lead him to use wrong sounds. This procedure is laborious for both teacher and learner and consumes considerable time; consequently only a very few teachers in the United States undertake it.

Unless a teacher has a fine pronunciation and a good knowledge of phonetics, it would be foolhardy to undertake such a thing. We would go even farther, and say that unless the teacher has a good pronunciation he should not undertake to teach the spoken language at all, even after the imitative method.

There are three prevalent attitudes toward this work on the part of modern-language teachers. The radical reformers are still in the minority. They give painstaking instruction with the aid of phonetic texts for weeks or months before the normal texts are introduced. They pay much attention to pronunciation throughout the course, referring to the sound chart to correct faulty pronunciation and taking a review of the difficult sounds as need arises. In order to avoid mispronunciation, they assign no home work before a good pronunciation has been established. Their principal reasons they give as follows: (1) In practical use good pronunciation is a *sine qua non*. (2) This is the only way in which to get an exact pronunciation on the foreign basis of articulation; it renders even the teacher's pronunciation better as he reads.

The second group is made up of the conservatives. They believe in *fine* pronunciation, and pay much attention to it, drilling the foreign sounds with the greatest care, and demanding a knowledge of phonetics of the teacher. They differ from the radical group by not using phonetic texts, although faulty pronunciation is corrected by reference to the sound chart and by careful correcting of faulty sound-placing. Their principal reasons may be given as follows: (1) To learn to read by phonetic texts means an extra burden. (2) Permanent misspellings result from the use of phonetic texts. (3) Good pronunciation is essential, hence they give it proper attention.

Last come the ultraconservatives, the old grammar-translation teachers. Their method of instruction is to read the rules on pronunciation contained in the grammar, and have them memorized. Beyond this they rely on imitation of the teacher as giving a sufficiently good pronunciation. Their reasons are: (1) Pronunciation, although important, does not warrant spending so much time on it as the reformers advocate. (2) Imitating the teacher suffices for learning a working pronunciation. This group is disappearing.

There are very few teachers who use phonetic texts for any period of time in their classes. For those who wish to do so, there is now an ample number of phonetic readers for German and French, although not yet for Spanish. (See the catalogues of the regular publishers of modern-language texts for the titles.)

A course in phonetics is now given in every university which offers a training course, or course in methods, for modern-language teachers; while in the college also it is usual to offer, if not a separate course in phonetics, at least an elementary orientation in phonetics in connection with the course in methods of teaching modern languages.

In view of the value of phonetics, we would counsel teachers in service to take an interest in this study. It need not be felt as an insurmountable task. There are, of course, specialists and enthusiasts in phonetics. The erudite treatises put forth by some of these, the lengths to which they would go in this instruction, may have staggered and disheartened some. There is no necessity of either. What the teacher needs to know about phonetics is, after all, little. If he can read the phonetic text and can describe the position of the vocal organs in forming the sounds, that is all that he will ever need. He need not have made primitive measurements, nor be an expert with the laryngeal signal, the endoscope, or other apparatus of the specialist.

No modern-language or educational association has yet demanded anything beyond the elementary knowledge mentioned. They, and boards of education, have demanded, however, and will continue to demand, that teachers have a good pronunciation, and that they be able to correct faulty pronunciation by definite direction as to the placing of the speech organs.

For those who have had no instruction in phonetics there are many courses open in summer schools. Later, a treatise on the sounds, a sound chart, a few transcribed texts, and some application should suffice to equip the teacher properly. Phonographic records for those whose pronunciation is still faulty, and considerable reading of transcribed texts, should put even those whose own pronunciation has been somewhat neglected on their feet.

Teachers and prospective teachers have thus at hand the means for equipping themselves to do this work. Before such preparation shall have been made, it were certainly foolhardy to undertake work of this sort. Teachers should, of course, begin, wherever necessary, to improve their own pronunciation by imitation of good models and by the means indicated above. For it is a remarkable fact that no class ever pronounces better than its teacher, no matter what means he may employ to teach pronunciation. But it must also be said that most classes do not pronounce so well as the instructor, and the best means of enabling them to do so is instruction and drill in sound formation.

Most teachers in the United States will prefer not to teach by phonetic texts, and will teach the symbols only as they are needed in order to recognize them on the sound charts. For unless a quite thorough course in phonetically transcribed texts is given, it is useless to start on such a course, since the initial confusion will be incurred, whereas the fruits of such a course cannot be reaped without continuing it for months. A good plan, in case only the most necessary instruction in phonetics is to be given, is to devote half hours during the first periods of the course to discussing French, German, or Spanish pronunciation, as the case may be, and following this up with a thorough drill on individual sounds.

Introductory remarks to American pupils on the pronunciation of the foreign language might call attention to the necessity of consciously adopting the new speech habits. For the basis of articulation of French, German, or Spanish is not that of our English. Merely replacing English sounds by such as sound a bit French, German, or Spanish will not suffice. There is, in the first place, a much livelier movement of the lips in French and German; the mouth is opened wider; there are numerous rounded vowels. It will not do to keep a " stiff upper lip." As compared with the great stress and great action of the speech organs in pronouncing English, French is pronounced with little stress and with very energetic articulation. The vowels, especially, give trouble. The glide of our diphthongized American vowels must disappear. Before starting on the foreign sounds, some also advise a slight study of the sounds of our English, which most pupils have, of course, never thought about. At all events, a short, clear exposition of the nature of our organs of speech is imperative. The sound chart should not be used in this initial instruction. It is bewildering. It should be drawn on the board as the sounds are produced and studied, gradually. Some teachers prefer to begin with the consonants, although the more general practice is to start with the vowels. The formation of the lip, teeth, and front-palate consonants can, no doubt, be observed better by the beginner than the formation of the vowel sounds. The difficult sounds should be taken last; e.g., the *r* and *e* in German and French. The trilled *r* is difficult for most of our pupils. It may be learned by trilling; i.e., first trilling with the lips, a singing trill like that boys and girls use on the street, and later transferring the trill to the tip of the tongue. Others can be led to it by allusion to the rolled *r* which our orators affect in impassioned passages; others again by singing it. Care must be taken, too, after they do learn it that not every *r* is trilled; for instance, final *r*'s in German unstressed words, as the Russians speak German, and as we hear our teachers doing occasionally. The uvular *r* we cannot teach our American pupils, unless in infancy or early adolescence, and then scarcely in school.

To devote whole hours to pronunciation is not a good plan with our pupils. They want to get at something practical at the earliest possible moment. To do this the sounds of a sentence may, after the first orientation and drill has been given, be taken up in the order in which they are found in the sentence. Then at the end of the hour they have a complete sentence or passage, which may be written in phonetic, or ordinary, script on the board for copying and memorizing. This may be continued as long as necessary. No other home work should be given before good habits of pronunciation have been pretty well established. If given the normal text to pore over at home, the pronunciation is bound to suffer, no matter how thoroughly the matter has been drilled in class.

When, finally, normal texts are introduced, after a few days or weeks, great care is necessary at the start. The sound chart may now be hung up, or written on the board in full. In case of mispronunciations, now, the teacher needs merely to point to the proper symbol on the chart to elicit from some pupil, or pupils, the proper sound.

During these opening weeks the teacher should speak much more than is now generally the practice, although he must not monopolize the time. Further on in the course, it will be found that an occasional review of the sounds and their proper production is profitable, especially at the beginning of a new school year, and after vacations. Continuous vigilance on the part of the teacher is required in this matter.

The individual student also needs care. His organs of speech may be defective. He may be suffering from adenoids, swollen tonsils, or other defects. Short drills, not long, fatiguing ones, must be the rule. Too much speaking by the class in the early weeks is dangerous to the speech habits to be acquired. All sounds must be made under strict supervision. The seating of pupils is important also, the hard of hearing nearest the teacher. Slow pupils may often learn from brighter ones also, and this pupil-teaching should be utilized fully; always under supervision, of course.

The symbols here used to represent the sounds of the various languages are those of the International Phonetic Alphabet. This is the most widely known of all phonetic alphabets, and practically all works on phonetics employ it. The approximate sound represented by each symbol is indicated by means of French, German, Spanish, or English words, but more precise directions for the formation of the sounds are given under the discussion of the individual sounds later on in this chapter.

a	Fr. p*a*rt
ɑ	Fr. p*a*s
b	Fr. *b*out
c	Fr. *qu*i (dialectal pron.)
ç	Germ. i*ch*
d	Fr. *d*ent
đ	Eng. *th*en
e	Fr. d*é*
ɛ	Fr. f*ai*t
ə	Fr. d*e*
f	Fr. *f*aux
ɡ	Fr. *g*ant
g	Span. lue*g*o
h	Eng. *h*it
i	Fr. qu*i*
j	Fr. *y*ak
ɟ	Fr. *g*ai (dialectal pron.)
k	Fr. *c*ar
l	Fr. *l*ong
ʎ	Fr. fi*ll*e (Southern pron.)
m	Fr. *m*ot
n	Fr. *n*i
ɲ	Fr. ensei*gn*er
ŋ	Eng. si*ng*
o	Fr. t*ô*t
ɔ	Fr. t*o*rt
œ	Fr. s*eu*l
ø	Fr. p*eu*
p	Fr. *p*as
q	Arabic *q*af
r	Fr. *r*ond (dental *r*)

R	Fr. *r*ond (uvular *r*)
ʁ	Fr. *r*ond (Parisian *r*)
ɹ	Southern Eng. *r*ed
s	Fr. *s*i
ʃ	Fr. *ch*amp
t	Fr. *t*as
θ	Eng. *th*in
u	Fr. t*ou*t
v	Span. sa*b*er
ɥ	Fr. b*u*is
v	Fr. *v*ent [1]

FRENCH PRONUNCIATION

Standard French pronunciation is here to be indicated by means also of the Alphabet of the International Phonetic Association.

The chart on page 99, that of Viëtor, gives the symbols together with the necessary nomenclature and indicates graphically the place of articulation of each sound.[2] Further directions for the formation of sounds are given, but a good pronunciation can be acquired without danger of error only by the use of a phonograph or the aid of a competent teacher.

Vowels formed with the tongue pushed or held forward in the mouth are called front vowels; with tongue drawn back, back vowels; with tongue halfway between, the neutral vowels. Vowels are voiced sounds; i.e., in their production the vocal chords vibrate. This vibration can be felt by laying the finger on the Adam's apple, or by stopping up the ears and noticing the buzzing sensation. A vowel is called close (closed) if in making it the tongue is held comparatively high in the mouth. In making an open vowel the tongue is

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[1] Cf. Passy, Paul, *The Sounds of the French Language,* pages 10 ff. Translated by Savary and Jones (Oxford; 1913).

[2] The chart is properly printed in three colors, — black, red, and green. It is shown here in black only, with a view to giving merely a general idea of its structure and aim.

Tableau des Sons Français

	Labiales	Dentales	Palatales	Vélaires	Laryngales	
Fermeture	pb	td		kg		Consonnes
	m	n	ɲ			
Rétrécissement	wɥfv	sz ʃʒ	jɥ	w		
		r		R		
		l				
Ouverture	( ) ( ) ( )		i(y) e(ø) ɛɛ̃(œœ̃) a	(u) (ə) (o) (ɔɔ̃) ɑɑ̃		Voyelles
	Soufflées Vocaliques Nasales					

held lower in the mouth. Any vowel may be open or close except *a*, which is open only. Length of the vowel is represented by ː after the vowel.

The vertical columns show the symbols for sounds according to their places of articulation: lips, teeth, hard palate, soft palate, and throat. The horizontal spaces show them according to the size of the opening, the breath passage being completely stopped and then opened (stops); the passage being partially stopped (spirants); and the passage being unimpeded (vowels). The voiced sounds are further represented by symbols in ordinary type, the voiceless by heavy type, and the nasals by italics.

Consonants may be voiced or voiceless. Voiceless consonants are formed by the articulation of the tongue or lips by which the passage of air is either stopped as in *p*, *t*, *k*, or obstructed as in *f*, *s*, ʃ. In voiced consonants the vocal chords vibrate in addition; e.g., in *b*, *d*, *g*, *w*, *v*, *z*, ʒ, *j*, and in the nasals and liquids *m*, *n*, *ŋ*, *l*, *r*.

However, we must note that one or more final consonants are usually silent in French, but that an *e* preceding such final consonants is usually pronounced. (e), *nez* (ne), *chez* (ʃe), unless it has the grave accent (ˋ), when it is pronounced (ɛ), e.g., *procès* (prɔsɛ).

Final *c*, *f*, *l*, and *r* are usually pronounced: *hamac* (ɑmak), *soif* (swɑf), *bel* (bɛl), *plaisir* (plɛziːr).

Doubled consonants are pronounced like single consonants: *passage* (pasɑːʒ), *atteler* (ɑtle), *collège* (kɔlɛːʒ), but consonants are sometimes pronounced long: *courai* (kurːe), *syllabe* (silˑab), as when followed by a mute *e:* *là-dedans* (ladıɑ̃).

All consonants which are phonetically final must be pronounced tensely, not slurred or slighted as in English: *tente* (tɑ̃nt).

Lip sounds: both lips

(p) A voiceless stop. Press the lips together before the explosion. Prepare the tongue for the sound to follow, as in English *tapir:* *pas* (pɑ), *frapper* (frape). Final *p* is silent except in a few words; e.g., *cap* (kap), *croup* (krup). Before another consonant, *p* is silent as in *sept* (sɛt), *septième* (sɛtjɛm), but not in other words beginning with *sept;* also in *baptême* (bɑtɛm) and its derivatives; also after a nasal when both consonants belong to the same graphic syllable: *champ* (ʃɑ̃), *compter* (kɔ̃te), and in *corps* (kɔːr), *sculpteur* (skyltœːr), *consomptif* (kɔ̃sɔ̃ptif), and before the ending *tion* (rezɔ̃psjɔ̃).

(b) A voiced stop. As in English *harbor*. Larynx must begin to vibrate before explosion, cheeks elastic, *bas* (bɑ), *bon* (bɔ̃), *robe* (rɔːb). Final *b* is pronounced in *Nabab* (nabab), *club* (klyb), and in foreign proper names: *Achab* (akab). It is silent when final after *m: aplomb* (aplɔ̃). Before *s* or *t* when next before a voiceless consonant, it becomes voiceless: *absolu* (apsɔly), *obtenir* (ɔptənir).

(m) Voiced, nasal stop. As in English *dreamer*, but more resonant and vigorous. The lips touch but are not pressed. Prepare the tongue for the following vowel: *mon* (mɔ̃). When *n* follows a vowel in the same syllable it loses its consonantal value and merely gives a nasal quality to the preceding vowel: *maman* (mɑmɑ̃).

But *mn* does not denote nasality: *damner* (dɑne), *automne* (otɔn).

(m) A voiceless stop as in *prisme* (prizm).

Teeth consonants: tongue and upper teeth

(t) A voiceless stop. Press the lips firmly before the explosion — *tu* (ty), *hâter* (ɑte). Press the point of the tongue against the lower, and the upper surface of the tongue against the upper, teeth and roof of the mouth. Prepare the tongue for the sound to follow.

Final *t* is usually silent but is sounded in *est* (ɛst) (= point of the compass), *ouest* (wɛst), *Christ* (krist), *net* (nɛt), *luth* (lyt), *infect* (ɛ̃fɛkt), also *sept* (sɛt), *huit* (ɥit), when standing by themselves. When followed by a vowel *ti* is in a few words sounded like *si: démocratie* (demɔkrasi). But if an English cognate exists, *ti* = *si*, as in *action* (aksjɔ̃). In verbs, *t* = *t* even in the combination *ti: portions* (pɔrtjɔ̃). The digraph *th* = *t: sympathie* (sɛ̃pɑti).

(d) Voiced stop. As in English *needy*. Directions for the production of *d* are the same as those for voiced *b*, except that in case of *d* articulation takes place at the teeth, with the tongue well forward against the upper teeth. *Madame* (madam), *défendu* (dəfɑ̃dy). Final *d* is pronounced in proper names: *Arnold, Léopold.*

(n) Voiced, nasal. As in English *many, nul* (nyl), *bonne* (bɔn). Tongue position as for French *t* or *d*, but with weaker articulation. Tongue farther forward than in the production of English *n*. Prepare for the following sound. *n* is not sounded in the ending of third person, plural, of verbs: *ils donnent.*

(n) Voiced, nasal, which is merely the sign of nasality of the preceding vowel: *prend* (prɑ̃), *trente* (trɑ̃ːt).

Front consonants: tongue and hard palate

(ɲ) Voiced, nasal. *enseignes-tu* (ɑ̃sɛɲəty).

(ɲ) Voiced, nasal. As in English *onion*, but a single sound. This is called the palatal *n* or *n mouillée*. Written *gn: gagner* (gɑ̃ɲe). Sometimes written also *ign: oignon* (ɔɲɔ̃). The point of the tongue must be behind the lower teeth, the middle of tongue against the roof of the mouth and palate. With the tongue in this position, try to pronounce the *ni* of *onion* as a single sound.

In a few rare words from the classical languages *gn* is pronounced *gn: gnome* (gnoːm), *diagnostique* (djagnɔstiːk).

Back consonants: tongue and soft palate

(k) Voiceless stop. As in English *kick*. Written *q, qu*, or *c* before *a, o, u*, or a consonant except *h*, and when final. Follow the general directions for pronouncing the voiceless explosives. Raise the back of the tongue and press it hard against the palate, then remove it suddenly. Practice *ekga*, making *kg* a single sound as you do so. *quand* (kɑ̃), *coq* (kɔk).

In *second* and its derivatives, *k* = *g:* (səgɔ̃). *cc* = *ks* before *e* or *i:* *accès* (ɑksɛ), *succinct* (syksɛ̃); and *cc* = *k* before *a*, *o*, *u:* *accorder* (ɑkɔrde) or a consonant: *accroire* (akrwɑːr).

In foreign words *c* = *k:* *cacao* (kakao).

In many learned words *ch* = *k*. In Spanish names *x* = *kw:* *Xeres* (Kserəs).

In a few Latin and Greek words *qu* = *kw:* *Aquatique* (ɑkwɑtik), *ubiquité* (ybikwite).

(g) Voiced back stop. Like *g* in English *frigate.* Written *g*, before *a*, *o*, *u*, and consonants; also *gg:* *gant* (gɑ̃), *gond* (gɔ̃).

When *g* is voiced before *e*, *i*, *y*, it is written *gu:* *guitare* (gitɑːr). Finally it is usually silent, but note *joug* (ʒuːg), *grog* (grɔg), and a few foreign proper names. Before *e*, *gg* is pronounced *gz:* *suggérer* (sygʒere).

Lip consonants: with raising of back of tongue

(w) Voiced. Written *o* before *i:* *toi* (twa).

(w) Voiced, written *ou:* *oui* (wi), *jouer* (ʒuːe). Written also *u* after *g* or *q*, and before *a* in such foreign words as *guano* (gwano). Written *w* or *wh* in words from the English: *whist, tramway.*

Lip consonants: with raising of front of tongue

(ɥ) Voiceless. Written *u*. Like *w* in English *sweet:* *huile* (ɥil), *nuage* (nɥɑːʒ). Directions: pronounce the semi-vowel and the vowel slowly, giving the same emphasis to each.

Lip consonants: lower and upper teeth

(f) Voiceless, as in English *far.* Written *f*, *ph.* The inner part of the lower lip is pressed against the upper teeth with more energy and suddenness than in English, the upper lip being slightly raised: *faire* (fɛːr), *facile* (fasil).

Final *f* is usually sounded, *soif* (swaf), *neuf* (nœf), but is silent in *clef*, *œufs*, *nerfs*, *cerfs*, *cerf volant*, *chef d'œuvre*, *Neufchâtel*, and before words beginning with a consonant, *neuf mille*. *Philosophe* (filəzof).

(v) Voiced, as in English *ever*, with lax lip pressure. Written *v*: *voir* (vwɑːr), or *f* in liaison: *neuf* (*v*) *arbres*, or *w* in German words, *Wagram*.

Teeth consonants: tongue and teeth

(s) Voiceless, as in English *miss*. Written *s*: *son* (sõ), *ss*, *casser* (kase), or *c*, *ceci* (səsi). Also *sc* before *e*, *i*, or *y*: *science* (sjɑ̃ːs), *scythes* (sit). Also *ç* before *a*, *o*, *u*: *plaçait* (plas$\overset{ɛ}{\text{ę}}$), *commençons* (kɔmɑ̃sõ), *reçu* (r$\overset{ə}{\text{ę}}$sy). Also *t* in the endings *-tion*, *-tial*, *-tiable*, *-tiel*, *-tient*, *-tience*, *-tieux*, *-tiense*, *-tié*, *-tium*, but not in *-tie*, *-tier*; also *x* in *dix*, *six*, when these do not precede or modify a noun, in *soixante*, and medially, or finally, in proper nouns: *Béatrix*, *Bruxelles*; also *z* in proper names, as *Metz*.

Final *s* is usually silent, as in *cas* and *les*, but is pronounced in *fils*, *atlas*, *mars*, *gratis*, *blocus*, *héras*, *mois*, *mœurs*, *os*, *ours*, *vasistas*, and *tous* (when this does not stand before a noun); also generally in foreign names: *Romulus*, and in many French names, as *Reims*, *Vosges*, and *Saint-Gaudens*.

Before a consonant *s* is silent in *est*, *mesdames*, *lesquels*, *mesdemoiselles*, *desquels*.

(z) Voiced, like *z* in *zone*. Written *z* or *s*, *x*, between vowels: *gaze* (gɑːz).

Final *z* is silent, *avez*, *chez*, but is sounded in a few proper names, *Berlioz*, *Suez*, also in *gaz*. But *s* between vowels is voiceless: *parasol*. If next to a voiced consonant, it is, however, voiced (z): *Israël*. If written *x*, it is voiced between vowels: *deuxième*, *dix-huit*, *dix-*

neuf. In liaison, *s* and *x* are voiced (z): *deux enfants, leurs amis.*

(ʃ) Voiceless, as in English *machine.* Written *ch* before vowels, and *sh, sch* in foreign words. Directions: Round the lips, articulate *s*, but tongue higher and farther back, and teeth closer together: *chanter* (ʃãte), *choir* (ʃwaːr), *shériff* (ʃɛriff), *schisme* (ʃizm).

(ʒ) Voiced, as in *azure*, but more resonant. Written *j, g,* before *e, i,* or *y,* or *ge,* the *e* being silent, before *a, ou: joli* (ʒɔli), *jeune* (ʒœn), *gilet* (ʒilɛ), *geler* (ʒəle), *mangeons* (mãʒõ).

Trilled vibration of tongue point

(r) Voiced. Absent in English except the British rolled *r*, affected also by some of our public speakers. Written *r* or *rr*. Hard to acquire. Tip of tongue must hammer against upper gums, near the teeth. Press point of the tongue hard against upper teeth and attempt to force it away with the breath, or trill the tongue against the upper teeth. This will enable one to produce the trill in time: *autre* (otr). In words ending with consonant plus *re*, the *re* should not be pronounced as a complete syllable but should receive only a slight vanishing sound: *notre* (nɔtr).

(r) Voiced, *ronde* (rõd), *rouler* (rule). Final *r* is sounded, but is silent in the ending *er:* (1) in most nouns and adjectives of more than one syllable — *danger, léger;* (2) in words of more than one syllable ending in *-ier, -yer, entier* (ɛ̃tje), *cuvier* (kyvje), in the infinitives of verbs of the first conjugation, *aimer* (ɛme), also in *monsieur.*

(l) Voiceless, unlike English *l.* Written *l.* Press the tongue firmly against the roots of the upper teeth, articulate more vigorously than in English, let the breath escape at the sides of the tongue. Keep the tongue well forward. Great care must be taken to avoid the sluggish English tongue action and to press the tongue firmly against the teeth and raise and narrow it: *peuple* (pœpl), *ville* (vil). In final syllables after a consonant before mute *e* pronounce with a vanishing sound.

(l) Voiced. Written *l: long* (lɔ̃), *rouler* (rule); *l* is silent in *fils, soûl.*

Ill or *il* = *j*. This *l* mouillée is really the palatal aspirant *j: travailler* (travajɛ), but when this *l* is final after *i*, the *j* is not heard at all, *fusil* (fyzi), but note *gentilshommes* (ʒɑ̃tijɔm). In a few cases *ill* or *il* is not *l* mouillée: *fil, avril,* and this is always so initially: *illustre* (ilystr).

(j) Voiceless. Written *i, ï,* or *y: pied* (pje), *diamant* (djamɑ̃). After the compounds *bl, br, gr, pr, tr, vr, i* has its vowel quality even before a succeeding vowel: *fabliau* (fablio), *prier* (prije), *février* (fevrje), *baionnette* (bajɔnɛt), *yeux* (jø). Between vowels *y* usually = *i* plus *i: moyen* (moiiên). The adverb *y*, pronounced *i*, becomes *j* before a word beginning with a vowel: *il y a* (ilja).

(j) Voiced, *bien* (bjɛ̃), *lien* (ljɛ̃).

Back consonants: vibration of the uvula

(R) Voiceless. It is a rasping sound much like guttural German *ch*, and quite impossible for an American to acquire unless in childhood. The tongue-point *r* described above is eminently proper and since it is easier to acquire than this uvular, it should be taught exclusively. Singers, of course, cannot use the uvular *r* at all.

Pronounce the *r* with a vanishing sound in words ending with a consonant plus *re*, the final *e* being, of course, silent.

(R) Voiced, *rond* (Rɔ̃). This *r* is sounded everywhere where the tongue-point *r* is sounded.

Vowels

The important thing for the American student to learn about French vowels is that the glide or diphthongal quality of the American vowels is never found in them. For instance, the vowel in English *rose* is o^u; i.e., there is a change of lip and tongue position from *o* to *u*. Similarly the *a* in *pay* may be represented by a^i. To break one's self of this habit of diphthongization is, therefore, the first requisite, and drills for this purpose must be given.

(ɑː) Like *a* in English *hart.* Written *a* or *â*. Mouth wide open, tongue broad and flat, *vase* (vɑːz), *tache* (tɑːʃ).

(ɑ) Same as the preceding, but shortened, *ta* (tɑ), *pas* (pɑ).

From this *a* position we proceed to the *i* position. Note that the tongue travels forward and upward and that the corners of the mouth are drawn apart, and that the jaw closes up considerably.

(iː) As in *meet* but without the glide y^e. Written *i*, *î*, *y*, *ie*. The corners of the mouth are far apart, leaving only a narrow opening between the teeth; the tongue almost against the roof of the mouth, tip against the lower teeth: *finir* (finiːr), *finit* (finiː), *vie* (viː), *lyre* (liːr).

(i) Same as (iː) but shorter, therefore tongue lower: *pipe* (pip), *récit* (rɛsi).

(uː) From the *i* position we proceed to the *u* position; the tongue travels backward, it is contracted, and its back is close to the soft palate. The lips are rounded. Written *ou*, *oû:* *rouge* (ruːʒ).

(u) Same as preceding, but shorter and more open: *tout* (tut), *goût* (gu).

(ɔː) Open *o* as in English *nor*, but minus the glide o^{au}. Written *o, au*. Directions: Start with ɑ, rounding the lips slightly and advancing the lower slightly. Raise the back of tongue. Note that ɔː is more open than *o* in *rose: tort* (tɔːr), *cor* (kɔːr), *Paul* (pɔːl).

(ɔ) Same as preceding but shorter and more open: *bloc* (blɔk), *robe* (rɔb).

(oː) Like *o* in English *tone*. Without the glide o^{u}. Written *o, au*. Directions: Start from ɔ, raising back of tongue and retracting the point. Round and protrude the lips. *Chose* (ʃoːz), *prose* (proːz), *fauve* (foːv).

(o) Same as preceding, but short; written also *au, eau: po* (pot), *aussi* (osi), *beau* (bo). But before *r*, *au* is pronounced (ɔ): *restaurant* (restɔrɑ̃).

(aː) Front vowel. The commonest *a* in French; between *a* in English *part* and *pat;* written *a, oi: part* (pɑːr), *page* (pɑːʒ).

(a) Same as preceding, but shorter and more open: *ra* (rat), *roi* (rwa), *noyau* (nwajo).

(yː) Front vowel, rounded like German *ṻ*. No English equivalent. Directions: Try to pronounce (iː) with lips rounded and protruded as if to make (uː) but without changing the position of lips or vocal organs. As soon as the position indicated is changed, the wrong sound is produced. Written *u, û, eu, eû: mur* (myːr), *mûr* (myːr); *eu* and *eû* in the forms of *avoir: eûmes* (yːm).

(y) The same as the preceding but shorter and more open, *fût* (fy), *vu* (vy).

(øː) Front, rounded. No English equivalent; really a rounded *e;* written *eu* before sounded *t* or *tr: meute* (møːt), or *eû, veuve* (vœːv).

(ø) Like the preceding but more open. *Peu* (pø), *jeune* (ʒøn). Also written *œu* before silent consonants: *bœufs* (bø).

(ə) Slurred like *e* in German *habe* or like *e* in *the — in th' book* — but with lips somewhat rounded. If accented, practically *œ* or ø as in *dites le* (ditlœ). Written *e* or *ai: cela* (səlɑ), also in monosyllables *le, me, te*, etc. Written *ai* in *faisant* (fəzɑ̃), the past participle of *faire*, and forms derived from this: *faiseur* (fəzœːr).

(œː) Front, rounded. No English equivalent. Written *eu, œu, œ, ue.* Similar to German *ȫ;* ɛ with rounding of ɔ: *heure* (œːr), *cueillir* (kœjiːr), *œuvre* (œːvr).

(œ) Same as preceding but shorter and more open: *orgueilleux* (ɔrgœjø), *bœuf* (bœf).

(e) Front, close, like *a* in English *fate*, without the glide. It is never long. Written *é: été* (ete), *blé* (ble). Directions: Teeth and lips a little wider apart than for *i*, corners of mouth not drawn so far apart, tongue not so far forward and not so high, but still tense. Written also *e* before silent final consonants except *t: parler* (parle) and also in *et* (e).

(ɛː) Front vowel, similar to *a* in *fare*, with mouth open wider. Directions: Start with the (e) position, open the mouth wider, lower the tongue. Written *ei, è, ê: reine* (rɛːn), *père* (pɛːr), *chêne* (ʃɛːn).

(ɛ) Same as preceding but short and open. Written *e, ai, ay: tel* (tɛl), *vrai* (vrɛ), *Douay* (duɛ). But at the end of verbs *ai* = *e* in forms of *savoir: tu sais* (tyˑse); also in *gai* (gɛ), *quai* (kɛ), *geai* (gɛ).

Nasal vowels

In pronouncing nasal vowels tongue and palate must not meet as in pronouncing English *song, long.* Do not pronounce the *m* or *n* which denotes nasalization of the preceding vowel but merely nasalize the vowel without closing the lips. Except in isolated cases *mm*, *nn*, do not denote nasality.

(ɑ̃ː) Equals ɑː nasalized. Written *am*, *an*, *em*, *en: grand* (grɑ̃ː), *rampe* (rɑ̃ːp), *temple* (tɑ̃ːpl), *lente* (lɑ̃ːt). But *am* is not nasalized in foreign names — *Abraham* — in *damner* and its derivatives, nor in the combination *amn* as in *amnestie.*

(ɑ̃) Same as preceding but short and more open: *sans* (sɑ̃), *champ* (ʃɑ̃), *temps* (tɑ̃).

En plus vowel and *enn* plus vowel are nasalized in a few words, as *ennui*, *ennoblir*, *enivrer*, *enorgueillir.*

(ɔ̃ː) Like *ong* in English *long* without the stoppage between back of tongue and soft palate. Written *om*, *on: compte* (kɔ̃ːt), *ronde* (rɔ̃ːd). *Omn* is nasalized except in *automne.*

(ɔ̃) Like preceding but short and more open: *son* (sɔ̃), *nom* (nɔ̃), *Dunkerque* (dɔ̃kɛrk).

(œ̃ː) Rounded vowel. Written *um*, *un*, *eun*, *humble* (œ̃ːbl).

(œ̃) Same as preceding but short and more open: *lundi* (lœ̃di), *jeun* (ʒœ̃). In most foreign words *um* = (ɔ): *rhum* (rɔ̃), etc.

(ɛ̃ː) Like the nasal in English *sang* without the stoppage and the glide: *sa*^{ee}*ng.* Written *in*, *im*, *yn*, *ym*, *ain*, *aim*, *ein*, *eim*, final *en*, and as the second part of the diphthong *ien: simple* (sɛ̃ːpl), *larynx* (larɛ̃ːks), *nymphe* (nɛ̃ːf), *mainte* (mɛ̃ːt), *feindre* (fɛ̃ːdr), *Reims* (rɛ̃ːs).

(ɛ̃) Same as preceding but short and open: *vin* (vɛ̃). However, initial *in* plus a vowel, or *h*, is not nasal: *inerte* (inɛ̃rt), *inhabile* (inɑbil). Also initial *inn* and *imm* are not nasal: *innocent* (inɔsɑ̃), *immense* (imɑ̃s), *impartial* (impɑrsjɑl). But in foreign names, and when followed by a vowel, *im* is not nasal: *Ibrahim*, *image*, *syntaxe* (sɛ̃tɑks), *sympathie* (sɛ̃pɑti). The combination *ymn* is not nasal: *hymne* (imn), *Main* (mɛ̃), *faim* (fɛ̃), *sein* (sɛ̃), *chien* (ʃjɛ̃), *tient* (tjɛ̃).

THE PRONUNCIATION OF GERMAN

The best German pronunciation is neither that of Berlin, nor that of Hanover, as formerly often asserted, although the standard of pronunciation is nearer that of the north than of any other part of Germany. Because of the many varying dialects of Germany, it was found necessary to fix upon a compromise as to pronunciation so that persons speaking this might be understood everywhere. This compromise was effected about 1898, and consisted in choosing principally the pronunciation which had come to be used by actors, with some slighter changes. It is known as *Bühnendeutsch,* and is spoken by educated people in all parts of Germany and Austria. They do not always succeed in avoiding their dialectic pronunciation entirely, however. Among the uneducated, the divergence from this standard pronunciation is still more marked. One needs, therefore, to be on guard against dialectic pronunciation everywhere in Germany, and more so in the United States. In all the books and helps mentioned in this book the *Bühnendeutsch*[1] is the norm.

Spoken language may be defined as breath expelled from the lungs and modified by the vocal organs. Vowels formed, with the tongue pushed or held forward in the mouth, are called front vowels; with tongue drawn back, back vowels; with tongue halfway between the two, neutral vowels. In the accompanying diagram for German vowels the position of each vowel marks the place of main elevation of the tongue while that vowel is being produced. The top of the diagram represents the roof of the mouth. Vowels are voiced sounds;

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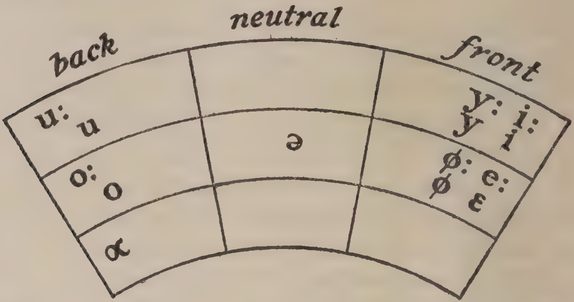
[1] Siebs, T., *Grundzüge der Bühnenaussprache,* 4th Edition (Köln).

i.e., they are produced by vibration of the vocal chords. This vibration may be felt by putting the finger tip to the Adam's apple, or by stopping up the ears and noting the buzzing sensation.



All the vowels here represented except *a* are close. A vowel is called close (closed) if in making it the tongue is held comparatively high in the mouth. Any vowel may be open or close, excepting *a*, which is open only. In making the open value of the vowel the tongue is lower than in making the close vowel. Close corresponds to long, open to short, in general. Length is represented by [ː] following the vowel.

As a prerequisite, where American children are to learn German pronunciation, they must be taught consciously to adopt the new speech habits and not merely to replace English sounds by something which sounds foreign. There is, first, a much livelier movement of the lips. Watch the French and Germans when they speak. Do they not protrude and round their lips and work them much more than Americans? The teacher may illustrate this at this point. This is not a peculiarity of a few persons, as you might think; it is essential to their peculiar pronunciation. The tongue is also far more active in speaking German than in speaking English.

The glottal stop, or catch, is a momentary stopping of the breath caused by closing the glottis, the space between the vocal chords. It precedes all initial stressed vowels. Denoted by the symbol ['] ’ap.

Following the phonetic symbol for any sound are given the approximate English pronunciation, and the various ways of representing the sound in German. Accent is on the first syllable unless it is indicated by heavy type of the vowel in another syllable.

[aː] Like *a* in *art* as pronounced in central U. S.; *a, aa, ah; da, Saat, naht* [daː, zaːt, naːt].

[a] Same, short: *a; ab, dann* [’ap, dan].

From this we proceed to the *i* position, and note that the tongue travels forward and upward.

[iː] Like *ee* in *bee; i, ie, ih, ieh, y* in foreign words, where it may be pronounced *i* or *y; dir, die, ihr, sieh, Asyl* [diːr, diː, iːr, ziː, Aziːl].

[i] Same, short, as in *hit; i,* sporadically *ie, y* in foreign words, where it may be pronounced *i* or *y; in, vierzig, Cylinder* [in, firtsiç, tsilindər].

Drill for long and short *i: mir — in; dir — bin; zieh — im.*

From the *i* position we proceed to the *u* position and note that the tongue travels backward.

[uː] Like *oo* in *fool; u, uh, ou* in words borrowed from the French; *du, Uhu, retour* [duː, uːhuː, rətuːr].

[u] Like *u* in *put; ou* in French words; *Bund, bunt, Rousseau* [bunt, bunt, russoː].

Drill for long and short *u: du — dumm, Kuh — Kumt, Uhu — Urne.*

Thorough drill on the vowels *i, a, u* may now be taken until the student becomes conscious of the position of his vocal organs before going on to the other vowels which stand intermediate between these.

[oː] Like *o* in *rose* minus the glide to *u* which, for English, may be represented by [roᵘs]; *o, oo, oh, eau* in French words; *so, Boot, froh, Trumeau* [zoː, boːt, froː, tryːmoː].

[o] Short *o; Schock, Rosz, Trosz* [ʃok, ros, tros].

Drill for long and short *o: Ohm — ob, Moos — rot, los — Rotte.*

[eː] Like *a* in English *hay* minus the glide, which for English may be represented by [heⁱ]; *ee, eh; he, See, geh* [heː, zeː, geː].

[ɛ] Like *e* in *get; e, ä; Nest, Äbte, Mägde, best* [nɛst, ɛptə, mɛçdə, bɛst].

[ɛː] Like *ei* in *their; ä, äh, ai* in words from the French; *bäte, Mähre, Portrait* [bɛːtə, mɛːrə, portrɛːt].

Drill for [eː] and [ɛ]: *weh — Bett, he — hätte, See — Kette, geh — plätten.*

[øː] No corresponding English sound; best produced by holding the lips in position for [oː] and attempting to say [eː]; *ö, öh, ieu* or *œu* in French words; *schwören, gröhlen, adieu, chef-d'œuvre* [ʃvøːrən, grøːlən, 'adjøː, ʃədøːvr].

[ø] Round the lips and attempt to pronounce [ɛ]; *ö; wölben, Gewölke* [vølbən, gəvølkə].

[yː] No English sound; protrude lips as for [uː] and attempt to pronounce [iː]; *ü, üh, u* or *ue* in French words, *y* in Greek words; *für, Sühne, Menu, Revue, Lyra* [fyːr, zyːnə, mənyː, rəvyː, lyːrɑ].

[y] Round the lips as for [u] and try to pronounce [i]; *ü, u* in French words, *y* in Greek words; *müszte, Trumeau, Martyrer* [mystə, trymoː, mɑrtyrər]. See also under [iː] and [i].

[ə] Like *a* in *Mecca*, but with less stress, [e] in unaccented syllables. This *e* is slurred, while all other vowels are pronounced the same, whether accented or unaccented. *heben, gegangen* [hebən, gəgɑŋgən].

The diphthong [ai]. Like *ay* with less stress and duration for the *a* than in English; *ei, ai,* sporadically, in names, *ey, ay; mein, Bai, Meyer, Mayer* [main, bai, maiər].

[au] Like *ou* in *out* with the first element of less duration than in English; *au; Haus, baut* [haus, baut].

[oy] Like *oi* in *boil* but with protruding lips, snappier than the English *oi*, the last element rounded; *eu, äu; Euch, Häuser* [’oyç, hoyzər].

The lip consonants (labials). Both lips

The accompanying sound chart will help to objectivate the sounds and their places of formation.

Chart of the German Sounds

	Lips	Teeth	Hard Palate	Soft Palate	Throat	
Closure	pb	td		kg	’	Consonants
	m	*n*		*η*		
Narrowing	fv	sz ʃʒ	çj	χg	h	
		r		R		
		l				

[p] Like English *p* in *pin*. This is a stop. If, in the production of a consonant, the breath is stopped, the sound is called a stop (explosive); if in making a consonant the breath is forced through a narrow opening, it is called a spirant. Consonants are also either voiced or voiceless according as the vocal chords vibrate in their production, or not; but all the voiced consonants except *l, r, m, n* become voiceless before voiceless consonants, or in final position. Thus: *Lied, und, Stab, Steg* [liːt, ’unt, ʃtɑp, ʃteç].

[p] A voiceless stop; *p* or *pp* or *b;* *Punsch, Pappe, gab, Pabst* [punʃ, pɑpə, gɑːp, pɑːpst].

[b] A voiced stop, like *b* in *boat;* *b* or *bb;* *Boot, Bote, Abbe* [boːt, boːtə, ’ɑbbə].

[m] Nasal, like *m* in *May;* *m, mm;* *mir, Memme* [miːr, mɛmə].

Lip sounds. Lower lip and upper teeth

[f] Like *f* in English *for;* *f, ff, v, ph* in names and Greek words; *Fuhre, Waffel, von, Phillis, Philosoph* [fuːrə, vɑffəl, fon, filis, filosoːf].

[v] Like *v* in *vase;* *w, v* in foreign words, *u* in *qu;* *wo, Sklave, Qual* [voː, sklɑvə, kvɑːl].

Tooth consonants. Tongue and upper teeth

[t] Like *t* in *tea;* *t, tt,* or final *d, th* in names and a few foreign words; *tun, hatten, Thürwächter, Thee, Thron* [tuːn, hɑtən, tyr-vɛçtər, troːn].

[d] Like *d* in *do;* *d, dd;* *da, dann, Quaddel* [dɑː, dɑn, kvɑdəl].

[n] Nasal, like *n* in *now;* *n, nn;* *man, nennen* [mɑn, nɛnən].

Tooth consonants. Lower and upper teeth

[s] Voiceless; *s, ss, sz, ç* in French words; *ist, was, Wasser, dass, Garçon* [’ist, vɑs, vɑsər, dɑs, gɑrsoŋ].

[z] Voiced; *s* before vowels, *z* sporadically in foreign words; *so, sehr, Sohn, satt, Gazette* [zoː, zeːr, zoːn, zɑːt, gɑzətə].

[ʃ] Like *sh*, but with rounded lips; *sch*, and *s* in initial *sp* and *st*, *ch* in French words; *schon, Tasche, Spur, Stein, Chapeau* [ʃoːn, tɑʃə, ʃpuːr, ʃtɑin, ʃɑpo]. *st* and *sp*, not in initial position, have not this value, but *s* + *t* and *s* + *p* [vɛstə, hɑspəl, vɛspə, ’ist].

[ʒ] Only in French words; *Etage, Jour, Bagage, Garage* [’ɛtɑːʒə, ʒuːr, bɑgɑʒə, gɑrɑːʒ, but joːviɑːl].

[r] Trilled *r;* *r, rr, rh, rrh.* Press the tip of the tongue firmly against the upper gums and attempt to make it vibrate by means of the outgoing breath. Some can

trill naturally with the tongue, others can trill with the lips and can learn to transfer this to the tongue, others can be led to imitate the rolled *r* affected by many American speakers in impassioned utterance; *rot, zerren, Rhapsode, Katarrh* [roːt, tsərən, rɑpsodə, kɑtɑr].

[l] *l* and *r*, called liquids; *l, ll.* This sound is different from the English-American *l*, and should be drilled with great care. In making the English *l* the tip of the tongue is drawn back somewhat, while the back of the tongue is lifted to the soft palate. In making the German sound the tongue is flat and the tongue-tip more forward (upper teeth) than in making the English sound. The German sound is also snappier — lips opened to corners of mouth: *Land, quälen, alle, Öl, Öllampe* [lɑnt, kvɛlən, ’alə, ’øːl, øːlɑmpə].

Front palate consonants

[ç] *ch, g* final after front vowels. Whisper *key*, and continue with considerable force to get this sound. After front vowels, or consonants, it may be pronounced [ç] or [k]. We will write it ç, but it may be remembered that *k* is correct also here. Initially before vowels in Greek words *ch* is pronounced either [k] or [ç]: *Alchemie* [’ɑlçɛːmiː] or [’ɑlkɛːmiː]. But before consonants it is pronounced *k* only: *Christus* [kristus].

[j] Like English *y* in *you; j, y* in foreign words; *ja, jung, Yucatan* [jaː, juŋ, juːkatan].

Back palate consonants

[k] *k, ck, g* final or before voiceless consonants in stage pronunciation, South Germany and Silesia; *König, freudig* [køːniç, froydiç], but in words ending in *lich* the preceding *ig* always = *ik: ewiglich* [’ɛvikliç], *keck, Sack, Tag* [kək, zak, taχ (or tak as indicated above)].

[g] Voiced back stop; *Gang, gut, Egge* [gaŋ, gut, ’ɛggə].

[ŋ] Like *ng* in *singer*, not in *finger; ng* or *n* before *k; fingen, Fang, Dünger, Dank* [fiŋən, faŋ, dyŋər, daŋk].

[χ] *ch.* In the stage pronunciation *g* = *k* after back vowels in final position or before voiceless consonants, but we shall follow the Middle and North German pronunciation, and take *g* after back vowels = χ, a rasping sound, like *ch* in Scotch *loch*, produced by vibration of the soft palate which the back of the tongue touches; *ach, Tag, Bucht, sag* ['aχ, taχ, buχt, zaχ].

[g] This North German sound does not occur in the stage language. Since it would only encumber the learner, and is entirely dispensable, it is probably best not to teach it to classes at all.

[R] No corresponding sound in English. Produced by vibration of the uvula, the loose end of the soft palate, and called the uvular *r*. In making it, the back of the tongue is raised against the soft palate. While this *r* is common in parts of Germany, and it is entirely correct, it is almost impossible of attainment for Americans. Another reason for sticking to the tongue-tip *r* is that the uvular *r* cannot be used in singing.

[h] Like English initial *h*, formed by the breath passing through the contracted glottis before a vowel is uttered; i.e., with the other organs in position for a vowel. Except in initial position, German *h* is almost universally silent. Besides this, there is only one other letter silent in German, viz., *e* in *ie*. *Hans, hier, eher* [hans, hiːr, 'ɛːər].

Z represents two sounds, *t* and *s*. These sounds are also represented by *ts* and *tz* — *zu, Rätsel, Schatz* [tsuː, rɛːtsəl, ʃats]; also by *zz* in Italian words, *Grandezza* [grandɛtsa]; *c* in foreign words before front vowels, *Cicero* [tsitsəroː]; and *t* before *i* followed by a vowel, *Regeneration* [rɛːgənəratsion]. The trigraph *chs* represents *k* + *s* = *x*: *Ochs, Hexe, sechs* ['Oks, həksə, zɛks].

Problems

For bibliography on phonetics see Bibliography of Methods, Appendix A; also Oliver, *op. cit.*

Evaluate the use of the phonograph to teach pronunciation. See references in the bibliography. Find the latest helps by looking through catalogues and the *Modern Language Journal*, and list them.

Describe the use of flash cards to drill pronunciation. Cf. Bovee, A. G., *School Review*, 24 : 675–679.

In teaching pronunciation, should the individual sound or the sound of the word or of the sentence be taught first? Reference: Schmidt, L., *School Review*, 23 : 255 ff.

CHAPTER FIVE

Associating Symbols and Meanings

Skill includes, further, associating symbols and meanings; for getting a vocabulary is, under any conditions and circumstances, a most important part of learning a foreign language. It is largely mechanical, calling mostly for memory, but it must not therefore be considered as beneath the dignity of pedagogy. To do it well, to get the meanings without the intervention of English, just as far as possible, to get thus an adequately large and suitable vocabulary, and to do this most economically, will require the greatest wisdom and resourcefulness of teacher, editor, and publisher, and the greatest tenacity of purpose on the part of teacher and pupil.

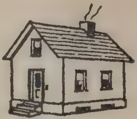
There was, for long ages, a certain procedure established both in the classical and the modern tongues for acquiring vocabulary. It consisted chiefly in memorizing, by repetition, outside of the classroom, a certain number of words daily. These, added together, gave in the course of years a working vocabulary. This was a clear-cut system, easily administered, and had only the fault that the words were retained as isolated vocables, had few associations, and hence could be recalled only as isolated words and with a maximum of effort, all of which tended to their disappearance from memory altogether. The consequent drudgery became distasteful. No interesting stimuli were associated with the work of memorizing, and the stereotyped form of the work served only to increase the monotony and thus to destroy that prime factor in learning, interest. It was, and is, therefore, an uneconomical system of learning vocabulary.

Our first principle must be that impressions of words must be of words in sentences, got by the ear, to be repeated orally, and later to be read and written, always in sentences.

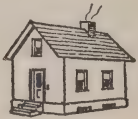
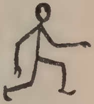
Another consideration must be that we make the association of symbol and meaning by way of the foreign language, not by way of the mother tongue, as the old school did. This is entirely feasible for children, whose stock of symbols in their mother tongue is still very limited, and fairly possible, even for late adolescents and adults, if care is taken to have the foreign word presented in such a way that the meaning is got directly from the picture or action. Object teaching is less good here, because the English word will interject itself before the foreign word can be spoken. Action is better, especially if it go rapidly, so that the word of the vernacular has not time to interject itself. This is one of the strong points of the series teaching. In later stages in conversation, pictures and wall charts are also very serviceable. They should be real foreign pictures, though, with the marks of the foreign country all over them, and the objects, actions, attributes should be named rapidly as they are pointed out. At first the tendency is for the native word to interpose itself, but if the work is done rapidly, the English quite banished from the classroom, and the pupils required to use the words in self-expression, *in speaking*, the tendency is for the association to become direct, without the intervention of the native words. Here lies the main reason, also, for avoiding translation from and into the foreign language. We cannot allow our students to attempt to play a tune on two instruments simultaneously. That is, translation is most distracting; it means thinking of one, in terms of the other, always. To my mind it breeds poor habits of thought. Instead of having stimuli (perceptions) result immediately in ideation or motor discharge, they waste themselves in being converted into another set of terms, which most certainly blunts their edge and inhibits action. And inhibition of proper action is dangerous for minds in the making, as every student of education is, of course, well aware.

The associations must be made as shown in the following illustration:

Not like this

la maison → the house → 

but like this

la maison →  ; or, *il court* → 

The first association of symbol and meaning must next be made in the classroom, under pleasant, or helpful, stimuli. The home work — review and reworking — must be of a different nature, that is, the work must be attacked from a new viewpoint: asking questions about the text and writing these, looking up forgotten words, recasting it, rereading it aloud, which is psychologically, of course, the best form of review and the surest way of forming numerous associations, and thus really assimilating the matter.

And here we see that our viewpoint brings us to further differences with the old school. We must distinguish between active and passive vocabulary. By *passive vocabulary* we mean that stock of words which a student can recognize merely when he sees them in sentences or contexts; by *active vocabulary* we mean that which he can use in speaking or writing. Indeed, in Germany a fourfold distinction has been made, with two grades of active and two of passive vocabulary: (1) Those which can be recognized in contexts; (2) those recognizable without context; (3) those which one can use correctly in sentences; (4) those which are semi-automatically always at the disposal of tongue or pen. This means that there are various degrees of acquaintance with words, several of which the student never reaches when studying by the old method.

While the foregoing scheme of the vocabulary is useful for purposes of analysis, it will suffice for our American conditions to speak merely of active and passive vocabulary, the first consisting of words which the pupil is able to use in writing and speaking; the second, of those words which he is able to recognize when spoken, written, or printed. It is a fruitful consideration that to the passive, if not to the active vocabulary, belong also all those words which are recognized from their relation to known words; that is, words which are recognizable because of the known English cognates, or from their similarity to related words which are known, as adjectives recognizable because the related noun, verb, adverb, etc., are known, or compounds recognizable because their compounded elements are known.

From such considerations it follows that we do not treat all words alike, that is, with the same degree of thoroughness. In working for active vocabulary we need to have the student hear, speak, see, and write the material before it is left, and then to take several reviews of it in more extensive form later on, as, for instance, by topics, in series. (See Chapter VI.) In extensive reading, on the other hand, it must suffice that he read the matter by himself, tell the contents in class, and take a cursory review, perhaps, in order to introduce a new viewpoint, with an eye to the literary significance of the matter. When, in intensive work, we read three or four pages, we read fifteen or twenty for extensive work. Such extensive reading must of course not be undertaken before the new speech habits have become fixed; in general, not before the second year in college or the end of the second year in high school.

This is a most important distinction. Teachers who do intensive work only never get their students to read, as they should, and reduce the work to a dull monotony. Teachers who do extensive work only induce superficiality, and never arrive at effective assimilation of anything. Exact procedures may be read up more fully in Chapter VII. The kinds of texts best suited to these various kinds of work are discussed in Chapter XIV. Here we must, however, note further the kind and amounts of vocabulary which such texts should contain.

It is desirable that the teacher should know how large and what kind of vocabulary the texts used contain. And, indeed, authors and editors have begun in some cases to supply us with this information concerning their texts. This is especially desirable in a first text.[1]

It should be remarked here that the recurrence of words half a dozen or more times in such a text is not necessary, although some recurrence is quite desirable. Undue recurrence, however, causes monotony, especially in direct-method treatment, in which material is worked over repeatedly. The fanciful idea, variously proposed, and worked out in a few isolated books, of enumerating the recurrence by a small figure 1, 2, 3, etc., placed above the word when it recurs, is not worth while in direct-method teaching and for a teacher who knows what vocabulary his class really has acquired. It merely serves to remind the pupil of the number of times it has recurred, and is thus for him a notice that it is nearly time for him really to learn it. For the teacher, it serves merely police purposes.

But, of course, merely that the words used in a text have been counted is no guarantee of a proper vocabulary. The discourse must have been written, or selected, with a specific sort of vocabulary in view. The best kind for beginners' texts, it is now agreed, is of a practical nature concerning things of every day in the foreign country, written in colloquial style. That the language must be idiomatic and contain material worth while, goes without saying. The worth-whileness is as important as the idiomatic quality, and both have been sinned against grievously. The teacher needs, therefore, to be on his guard in selecting texts in regard to these points: (1) idiom, (2) style, (3) worth-whileness, (4) practical nature of vocabulary, (5) size of vocabulary (not too large).

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[1] Work is now being done towards getting a standard elementary vocabulary for the languages here concerned by listing the words common to a score or more of the most used elementary grammars. We may therefore hope to have an authoritative elementary vocabulary before long.

Additional methods of fixing vocabulary are here to be discussed. The following exercises can be utilized also as reviews of vocabulary.

One association which can be used in learning meanings consists in connecting a word with its opposite (antonym). Either one will then call up the other. Thus: *bel: laid; long: court; bon: méchant; haut: bas; faire: défaire; monter: tomber; bienfaiteur: malfaiteur.* Also, *kalt: warm; lang: kurz; hoch: niedrig; steigen: fallen; Inland: Ausland; pobre: rico; joven: viejo; la muerte: la vida.*

A good way to use this exercise is occasionally to call for the opposites of words of the reading text instead of calling for translation, or quizzing, or retelling in the foreign language. The antonyms given by the class will be words previously learned. Thus the exercise acts as a review of vocabulary as well as a substitute for retelling, quizzing, etc. Its specific use as a vocabulary-getter is that it raises words from the passive to the active vocabulary of the student.

Work with synonyms serves the same purposes. Here, as with antonyms, it is possible to introduce words (synonyms) which are unknown to the class, or which they have forgotten. But introducing really new words in this way should be done very sparingly, and only when the teacher has erred in supposing that his class knew a synonym for the word in question.

In this case he may tell them one. Such words may be entered in a class notebook, which is to be discussed later.

The teacher will need to study his synonymic dictionary, in case he is not thoroughly fluent in the language. Synonyms for him must come trooping — *fier*, *orgueilleux*, *hautain; oser*, *hazarder*, *risquer; sagen*, *behaupten; antworten*, *erwidern; äussern*, *entgegnen; reich*, *wohlhabend*, *begütert; besitzen*, *eignen*, *haben; Mann*, *Herr; Hausherr*, *Hausvater; bajo*, *vulgar*, *común*, *indecento; cierto*, *seguro*, *verdadero; ceder*, *dejar*, *abondonar*, etc.

Incidentally, we may note here how important it is that the teacher know just what words his class has had. This is always possible in the first year, and in the later years, also, in cases where a teacher is the only teacher the class has had. He will, therefore, tend, no doubt, to set up a standardized course. Teachers who make undue changes in their texts from year to year, and those who do not make a careful study of texts used, cannot know this.

The ability to recognize English cognates is also very valuable, since the student is then able to link the new to the known. To open the eyes of students of German to this, Grimm's Law must be explained to them. For a terse statement of this see Wenckebach's *Glück Auf*, pages xi–xix (Ginn & Co.). Even before explaining this law, attention may be called to the correspondences, and the students taught to recognize many of the cognates. Here it will be sufficient to explain that German and English have descended from a common language, and thus have many words in common, although the English vocabulary consists largely of words of French and Latin origin. The spelling of Germanic words in English has been changed, and often the meaning as well. The German word, however, must look somewhat like the corresponding English word, and hence is quite readily recognizable, with a little practice. When we meet a word bearing such resemblance to an English word, we may proceed on the assumption that it is identical with it, if the context bears us out. The actual procedure in the classroom is then occasionally, instead of translating and retelling, to call for the English cognates of certain words. The real benefit lies in leading the student to guess the meanings of German words from what he knows of the English.

In this connection we may call attention to the value of noting words of the modern German which have come to be used in modern English and vice versa (ref. *Die neueren Sprachen*, XX, 59 ff., 627 ff., and *ibid.*, XXII, 17 ff.), and also to the modern French words which have come to be used in English and vice versa (ref. *ibid.*, XX, 59 ff., and *ibid.*, XXII, 23 ff., 398 f., and 475 ff.). To make students alive to these, they should be encouraged to bring in French or German or Spanish words seen in advertisements, signs, programs, menus, or overheard in conversations. Clippings of various kinds containing such words may be brought in, also, to be posted in the classroom. This stimulates interest and aids as a vocabulary-getter.

The French words which have been in English since Norman times are very numerous. Their number, with those from the Latin direct, is estimated at two thirds of the total vocabulary. They are easily detected. The laws of change are simple and may be read up in any standard grammar.[1] The teacher should not fail to make his class acquainted with the correspondences; e.g., *estimable*, estimable; *courtoisie*, courtesy; *dangereux*, dangerous; *insupportable*, insupportable.

For French, Spanish, and Italian the Latin cognates are important. In our mixed classes it is very seldom the case that all have had Latin, but in such a rare case, reference to the Latin will be useful; e.g., *frère* < *frater*, *sœur* < *soror*, *patrie* < *patria*, and, not so easily detected: *dépouilles* < *spolia*, *morceau* < *mordere*.

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[1] Cf. Sweet, H., *New English Grammar*, Part I, pages 468 ff. (Oxford; 1892); cf. also Henry, V., *Comparative Grammar of the English and German* (London; 1894).

With etymologies we could not do much, if we would, in our country, because of the uneven preparation of our students, whereas, in French and German schools, with their uniform training, it is possible to know just what may be presumed in the way of knowledge of Latin, and of English, German, or French historical grammar. If by etymological study we mean tracing a word back to the Latin or Greek, or the modern Germanic word to the Indogermanic, then we have no time for it in our courses. But it may mean merely calling attention to the basal meanings of words: *erfahren* < *er* + *fahren* = to get by riding (through a country); *hoflich* < *Hof* + *lich* = *courtlike;* *Viertel* < *vier* + *Teil* = quarter; *hoch*, but *höher*, because final *h* in Middle High German was pronounced *ch*, etc. Or, *défaire* < *de* + *faire;* *décrotter* < *de* + *crotte* = to remove dirt, etc. Such commentary makes the student alive to see what a word is made of, gives him a much better grip upon the words, and makes language far more picturesque and full of meaning for him. This factor should be made full use of wherever possible. Incidentally, it opens up a very interesting field to the young teacher also.

Compounds and derivatives offer still more fruitful study. In autochthonous languages like French and German it is the rule to find formed, from the same stem, nouns and their compounds, adjectives and adverbs, often also compounded, and verbs and their compounds: *Hand*, *Handlichkeit*, *Handhabung*, *Handel*, *Handlung*, *Behandlung*, *Handgriff*, etc.; *handlich*, *behende*, *handeln*, *aus-*, *einhändigen*, *handhaben*, *ver-*, *ab-*, *behandeln*, etc.; *cours*, *course*, *concours*, *secours*, *recours*, *courant*, *courant* (adj.), *couramment*, etc.; *courir*, *secourir*, *concourir*, *recourir*, etc.

If unguided, the average student will look up every new word he meets, without imagining it related to any words he knows. Beyond this loss of time, he will remember the words less easily than if he learns to think of them as related group words.

In this way, thousands of words may be added to his passive vocabulary, and, if care is taken to review such groups, many of them may even be transferred to his active vocabulary. A good device for such review is to have a bright student enter in a class notebook such groups as are worked out in the classroom from time to time. This notebook is handed out to this student at the beginning of the hour of recitation, and occasionally the teacher may ask for a reconstruction of a number of groups, the notebook serving as his guide. This affords the class an excellent review of the words, and serves to bind them together effectively. There are a number of publications which the teacher will find useful for this work.[1]

Further methods of word-formation should be taught in advanced classes; namely, methods of word-formation by suffixes, prefixes, by joining two or more words together, and, in German, by *Ablaut* of the radical syllable of nouns and verbs, etc. French *-ette*, *-on*, suffixes denoting diminutives, *maisonnette*, *chaînon*, etc.; *-isme* = English *-ism* or *-ity; -iste* = English *-ist; -bilite* = English *-bility* or *-bleness; -ier*, *-eur*, *-iere*, *-eur*, *-euse* = English *-er* (*-euse*); *-logie*, *-pathie*, *-tomie*, *-graphie*, *-sophie* = English *-logy*, *-pathy*, *-tomy*, *-graphy*,

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[1] Stappers, H., *Dictionnaire Synoptique d'Etymologie Française* (Paris); Barcía, R., *Sinónimos Castellanos* (Madrid); La Faye, *Dictionnaire des Synonymes* (Hachette, Paris); Sommer, E., *Petit Dictionnaire des Synonymes Français* (Hachette, Paris); Muzzarelli, A., *Antonymes de la Langue Française* (Jenkins, New York); Hatzfeld, Darmesteter, and Thomas, *Dictionnaire Général de la Langue Française* (etymological and explanatory; Delagrave, Paris); Benat, *Diccionario de Modismos* (Romero, Madrid); Schlessing-Wehrle, *Deutscher Wortschatz* (Esslingen); also Prehn, *A Practical Guide to a Scientific Study of the German Vocabulary* (Oxford University Press).

-sophy; -ique = English *-al, -ical; -ment* = English *-ly; -el, -al* = English *-al; -able, -ible* = English *-able, -ible.* Prefixes *re-, de-* (*des-*), *mé* (*mes-*) = *dis-*, etc.

Joining words to form compounds in French is done mostly by means of prepositions or by combining a noun with a qualifying adjective: *table à manger, homme d'affaires, robe de nuit, faux pas, tables logarithmiques, belle-mère, bonhomme,* etc.

German nounal suffixes *-chen, -lein* denote diminutives; *-tum* = English *-dom; -schaft* = English *-ship; -er, -ler, -ner* = English *-er* denoting agent, profession, etc.; *-heit, -keit* denote abstracts; *in*, added to masculine nouns, denotes a corresponding feminine, etc. In advanced classes numerous other suffixes may be utilized:[1] adjective suffixes *-artig, -bar, -erlei, -fach, -faltig, -haft, -icht, -ig, -los, -mäszig, -sam,* etc.

Nounal prefixes *erz-, misz-, un-*, etc. Adjectival prefixes *erz-, un-, ur-*, etc. Verbal prefixes *be-, er-, ge-, ent-, ver-, zer-*, etc. Joining one or more words in various ways, *Landadel, Reichsbank, Hofprediger, Langmut, sanftmütig, hochfein*, etc.

By ablaut: *Sprung* from *sprang; Bruch* from *brach*, etc.; *sprengen* from *sprang; fällen* from *fallen*, etc.

As to the selection of elementary vocabulary, stress should be laid in German on choosing the cognates of Anglo-Saxon words. It will be found that for most of the common English words, nouns naming parts of the body, colors, household and yard utensils and largely the vocabulary of daily common life, German cognates are extant. The vocabulary should, then, include these categories. On this vocabulary must be based exercises in detecting English and German cognates (Grimm's Law).

For French, considerable weight should be laid on selecting and constructing a text which contains words common to French and English. This is a bit difficult for elementary texts, owing to the fact that the French words in English pertain more generally to the things of more polite society. (The Normans were the higher social class in England when they grafted their vocabulary upon the English tongue.) It is possible, however, to construct elementary texts with numerous words common to both. Moreover, some of the students know Latin, and the use of correlations of Latin and French should be made use of. At all events, the Latin-French element in English should be thoroughly studied by the use of many pairs of cognates common to the two. Daily detection of these words and detection of modern French words now in use in English will offer material for rich study of this sort.

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[1] See Curme, G. O., *Grammar of the German Language*, pages 437 ff., 452 ff., 465 ff. (The Macmillan Company, New York).

In addition, some attention should be paid to the life of words; for instance, that our words originally were used to denote a physical action, or state, or thing — to grasp a thing, to breast the wave — and as the race advanced in mentality these same words were taken in a figurative sense to denote mental actions — to grasp the problem, to breast the tide (of difficulties), and to the fact that a physical situation generally underlies primitive uses of words: French *maintenant* = hand-holding = just now, as I hold your hand = now; Latin *stantepede* = footstanding = now as I stand = immediately; German *stehenden Fuszes* = *auf der Stelle.* And the facts of pejoration and amelioration of words should be taught: Anglo-Saxon *cnafa* (boy) > modern English *knave;* German *Dirne* = maid > *Dirne* = prostitute; Latin *nescius* > O.F. = *foolish* > Middle English, *dull, lazy* > modern English, *nice;* Latin, *tribulum*, a threshing implement > English *tribulation*, a cleansing, ennobling spiritual process, etc.

By judicious use of the exercises indicated in this chapter, the student's vocabulary may be made to grow rapidly.

However, in the elementary stages of the course only the active vocabulary should be nurtured. If the teacher is certain that his class, or a majority of it, will discontinue the study at the end of the second year, he should during the last weeks of the second year in high school, and throughout the second year in college, pay attention to the acquisition of passive vocabulary. But even in the advanced stages of the study the effort of the teacher should be to raise as much as possible of the passive vocabulary to active vocabulary by exercises, as indicated in this chapter. In case of high-school classes purposing to continue the study beyond the second year, the work on passive vocabulary may well be postponed to the third and later years.

On modes of learning and retaining meanings, see also Chapter XII. On relations between Spanish and English words, see also *Modern Language Journal*, 7: 173–178.

HANDY LIST OF TEACHING DEVICES DISCUSSED IN THIS CHAPTER

1. Quiz on lesson by calling for antonyms or synonyms.
2. Call for English cognates as a review-exercise for the vocabulary of a text.
3. Call for basal meanings of some words; e.g., *défaire, décrotter, Viertel, erfahren.*
4. In second year or later put together groups of words derived from a common root. Get the student to note such words in a class notebook the first time a group is constructed; then from time to time review these groups by means of this notebook.
5. Develop the advance lesson by gesticulation, using circumlocutions, referring to sentences in which a word in question has been used before and asking for cognates.
6. See also list of devices after Chapter XII.

Problems

1. Find by investigation the size of the vocabulary in a number of elementary books, and also the number of new words to the page and the number of times a word recurs. Method of investigation: Count the words

in the word list. Divide this by number of pages to find the average number of new words per page.

Find the total number of words and recurrences by calculating the number of words per page and multiplying this by the number of pages of text. From this total subtract the total number of new words and divide the remainder by the number of pages of text to find how often on an average a word recurs in the book; e.g., 1000 words in the word list and text contains 100 pages of text. Then there are on an average 10 new words to the page. If there are 300 words to the page (30 lines with an average of 10 words to the line), then there are 30,000 words and recurrences in the text. Subtract the total number of new words from this total — 29,000 recurrences in 100 pages; that is, every one of the 1000 words of the text recurs on an average 29 times.

2. Can you think of other ways of interpreting the meaning of a word than (1) by associating it with the object denoted by it, or a picture of this, or acting it out; (2) by translation; i.e., giving the equivalent English word; (3) by defining it, with foreign words; (4) by having the learner guess the meaning from the spoken or printed context? If so, give examples. Give examples of each of the four ways mentioned above.

3. Can you think of any aspects of words which should be taught besides the following: (1) Form (includes morphology, phonology, orthography, and etymology); (2) meaning; (3) function (in the sentence)?

CHAPTER SIX

ORAL WORK

A SEPARATE chapter devoted to oral work may seem superfluous, since by the direct method most of the matter is first presented orally, and oral exercises are based upon all matter studied. But teachers may desire more specific guidance in regard to oral presentation and discussion than is given under the chapters on Reading and Writing, and there is, moreover, a wealth of material to be presented in this chapter which could not well be treated under those captions.

Besides, especially in the lower grades, as in the junior high school, some material is treated only orally, that is, is told by the teacher, to be retold by the pupil without being read or written, as, for instance, in discussing wall pictures. Speaking, without subsequent reading and writing of the material, may be used for subconscious assimilation in any class, but it finds its largest use, no doubt, in the first stages of elementary study.

The arguments for and against oral work we shall not take space to review here. Several references to typical discussions of our present conception of oral work are, however, here appended.[1]

We know very well that speaking is not attainable in four years, but fluent speaking is really not the aim of oral work in high-school courses. A good start in speaking, and ability to understand the spoken language easily, both of which greatly aid the ability to read, are our aims in oral work. Those who think these aims not attainable in four years are referred to our best schools for practical proof, those who think that idiomatic, fluent speaking ability is attainable are referred to Breymann's statement that it is unattainable even in the longer course of the German *Gymnasium.*[1]

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[1] *Modern Language Journal*, 1: 79–91, 1917; *Publications of the Modern Language Association of America*, 24: xvii, 1902; *Die Neueren Sprachen*, 23: 32–45, 1915; Proceedings Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of Middle States and Maryland, page 105, 1915.

A question which we shall no doubt meet is: Do you teach the colloquial or the literary and scientific language? For you certainly cannot teach both at the same time. The best answer has been given by Schweitzer,[2] as follows: "Yes, we teach both; the colloquial first, and the literary later." And he uses these diagrams to illustrate. Starting from a point A we do not travel toward B and C at the same time thus, $\underset{A}{\overset{B \quad C}{\diagdown\diagup}}$, but thus: $\underrightarrow{A \quad B}\underrightarrow{\quad C}$.

The present attitude toward oral work in the United States is best characterized by the establishment of an oral test as part of the college entrance examinations in New York and other Eastern states.[3] Such tests are bound to become a part of all modern-language examinations of this kind.

For the benefit of inexperienced teachers let us sound the danger residing in this oral work at once. Too much of it, to the slighting of thorough work in reading and writing, makes for superficiality, and taxes the aural memory only, thus neglecting the visual and the graphic memory.

The result, as is best exemplified by the classes of the peripatetic "professor" of languages, is a smattering of inaccurate conversational ability which is soon lost and leaves nothing in its wake.

Too fluent speaking on the part of pupils in the first months of a course is dangerous to pronunciation and grammar alike.

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[1] Breymann, H., *Die Neusprachliche Reformliteratur,* 3: 105 ff. (Leipzig; 1905).

[2] Schweitzer, Ch., *Méthode des Langues Vivantes,* pages 3 ff. (Paris; 1903).

[3] *Modern Language Journal,* 1: 79 ff., 1916. Cf. also *Publications of the Modern Language Association of America,* 24: Appendix, page xvii.

They need to *hear* more, and to reproduce only matter taught them under the closest supervision.

What matter can be presented purely as oral material? How simple conversations can be made up about objects in the classroom, the room itself, its parts, the persons in it, etc., may be learned in a number of elementary books. The following are given as suggestive examples: *Qu'est-ce que c'est que ça? C'est la fenêtre. Ouvrez la fenêtre. La fenêtre est ouverte (fermée). Combien de fenêtres cette salle a-t-elle? Elle a quatre fenêtres. Combien de portes la salle a-t-elle? Elle a deux portes. De quelle couleur est la porte? Elle est noire. Montrez-moi la fenêtre. Je montre la fenêtre. Combien d'élèves* (*de monsieurs, des dames*) *a-t-il ici? Il y a un* (*deux, trois*, etc.). *Qu'est-ce que vous voyez sur le pupitre? Qui est-ce que vous voyez dans le premier banc* (*dans le dernier banc*, etc.)?

Wo stehe ich? Sie stehen vor dem Pult. Wohin gehe ich? Sie gehen an die Tafel. Was tue ich? Sie schreiben (etc.). *Was für ein Kleid trägt Frl. — ? Was für einen Anzug trägt Herr — ? Er trägt einen schwarzen. Wer ist gröszer, er oder sie? Wer ist älter, sie oder er? Wo waren Sie gestern? Wozu dient Feder, Bleistift, Messer, Papier, Buch, Stuhl* (etc.)?

¿Dónde está Juan? Juan está en una silla. ¿Dónde está el mapa? El mapa está en la pared. ¿Dónde ~~soy~~? Vd. está entre la pizarra y la mesa.

[illegible] Soy de Toronto
I am from

An easy procedure is to conduct conversation by means of charts or pictures. Data concerning the best-known charts and pictures, also concerning questionnaires on these, are appended, which will be doubly welcome to young teachers. See Chapter X. We may add here a few suggestions which may be of use in discussing any pictures the teacher may desire to use.

O'Grady calls attention to the possible danger in such work and says it is well occasionally to practice the vocabulary of such charts without the chart being in sight; otherwise the vocabulary tends to become passive instead of active.[1]

The Hölzel pictures have been the most popular[2] but we should remember in our choice of pictures that idiomatic quality is a first desideratum; i.e., the picture should breathe the spirit of the country whose language is to be taught by means of it.

Points about pictures suitable for discussion are: physical objects, where found or made, their parts, the materials of which they are composed, their use, size, form, color, and other attributes; persons and animals, their environment, or habitat, their sex and activities; time, place, manner, and reason for these activities; relations of the persons, one to another, and of the animals, one to another.

Tenses may be illustrated by reference to what is happening in the picture (present tense); what is evidently going to happen in the picture (future); and what has evidently happened (past, perfect) with the things, persons, and animals.

From these suggestions it is evident that an elementary class may talk for days about a well-arranged picture without exhausting it.

In order to give practice in the intimate forms of address, (*du*, *tu*, *tú*) which, I wish to suggest here, may very properly be used in addressing children in the junior high school, a conscientious teacher of German has even formed a *du* row in his college classes.[3] Members of this row, seated in the place of honor near the professor, agree to be addressed, and to address each other, with the familiar pronoun. Whether this is worth while has been questioned, but if it is, this is certainly an excellent device by which to accomplish it.

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[1] O'Grady, H., *The Teaching of Modern Languages by the Organized Method*, page 55 (London; 1915).

[2] Breymann, *op. cit.*, page 122. A most valuable book for practical exercises based on pictures is Hartmann, K. A. M., *Die Anschauung im Neusprachlichen Unterricht* (Hölzel, Vienna. 34 pages). This contains also a valuable bibliography of the subject. See also Hess, J. A., "The Use of Pictures in the College German Class," *Modern Language Journal*, 2: 308–314.

[3] Hess, J. A., "The *Du* Row in a College German Class," *Monatshefte für Deutsche Sprache und Pädagogik*, 16: 216–220, 1915.

Another simple exercise consists of telling what is going on in the room. Thus the class, or one pupil, may tell what the teacher or a pupil is doing. "Vous entrez dans la salle. Vous vous approchez du pupitre. Vous montez l'estrade. Vous vous asseyez. Vous ouvrez le journal de classe," etc., instead of *vous*, other pronouns, *il*, *elle*, *ils*, *tu*, *je*, may be employed if the proper persons are selected to perform the actions. Thus: "Je me lève. Je sors du banc. Je me baisse. Je remasse le papier. Je le jette dans le panier. Je me redresse. Je vais à ma place." Or: "Elle (il) va au tableau. Elle prend un morceau de craie. Elle écrit un mot sur le tableau."

Arithmetic, especially the multiplication table, affords much material for easy oral work. Counting objects or persons in the classroom, with cardinals, and ordinals as well, may form the beginning. Multiplying — "*Zweimal zwei macht vier, zweimal drei macht sechs; trois fois deux font six, trois fois trois font neuf*" — gives not only good practice in numbers, but also in pronunciation and in forming sentences.[1] Singing as an exercise in oral practice should receive considerable attention. It is excellent for pronunciation, vocabulary, idiom, and a feeling for the spirit of the foreign civilization. As a waking-up exercise for a drowsy class it is unexcelled. Procedures: Teach the song orally, have the class read it, sing it, memorize, and recite it. For suitable collections for French, German, and Spanish songs see Chapter X.

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[1] Cf. *Monatshefte für Deutsche Sprache und Pädagogik*, 9: 68–71, 100–104 (gives procedures and examples for German).

For high-school and similar classes games[1] are sometimes used. The game "Packing a Trunk," i.e., telling what is to be put into it, has been found useful, also the games called "Buzz" and "*Connaissez-vous Paris?*"[2] Several others which have been used are: "Building a House," stocking a general store and selling from it, called "Store," playing a game of French or German cards. *Problèmes pointées* for French, *Rätsel* for German, may also be used to pique the interest and to help assimilate useful linguistic material. The teacher is herewith referred to useful French[3] and German[4] collections.

Dramatics also may be used. Some very easy French material for young children has been made available,[5] as well as some suggestions for work with advanced pupils.[6]

For advanced classes, telling stories and anecdotes in rotation about the class is another variant exercise for this purpose. Such material may be found in journals and books, laid out by the teacher for this purpose; or matter overheard in conversation, or experienced, may be utilized. For French, journals like *Le Monde français;* for German, *Aus Nah und Fern;* for Spanish, *El panorama*,[7] will be found useful.

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[1] *Modern Language Journal*, 1: 202 ff. for German; *ibid.*, 4: 275–279 for French.

[2] To be had at W. R. Jenkins, 851 Sixth Avenue, New York. For German games see also "German Games and German and English Books," Bulletin of State Normal School, Emporia, Kansas, 1916. 8 pages.

[3] *Die Neueren Sprachen*, 19: 505–510. See also the catalogues of our American publishers and the advertisements in the *Modern Language Journal.*

[4] Wenckebach, C., *Lesebuch*, pages 183–187 (Henry Holt & Co., New York).

[5] Ashelman, *Elementary School Teacher*, 6: 33–39, 5: 599–600. See also Chapter X for further references.

[6] *Modern Language Journal*, 1: 242–246, 1917.

[7] These three journals are published at the Francis Parker School, Chicago, but *Aus Nah und Fern* has been temporarily discontinued. Doubleday Page & Co., New York, publish for similar uses: *Le Petit Journal* and *El Eco.*

If the teacher desires to have some writing done along with the oral work, that is quite possible by placing at the board a number of students who write what is related. One of their copies may finally be corrected with the aid of the class, the other students at the board correcting their own work. This will serve also as a review of the material.

Another device for review of such material is to have a pupil write the *key words*, that is, the most important words of each sentence on the board as the narrating is going on. From these key words another may later on be asked to reconstruct the story. This is not only interesting and useful, but serves as a check on wavering attention on the part of some, which occasionally may be desirable.

For teachers who will have none of all of this, either from principle or from lack of time, there remains the very necessary thing to be done in the foreign language, namely, giving the directions, doing the quizzing, and explaining the new words of reading texts. For the young teacher even this will be difficult. How can we convey the meaning of new words by means of the foreign tongue? The answer is as follows: (1) By illustration or circumlocution. "*Qu'est-ce que c'est qu'un chapeau? Voilà un chapeau* (pointing to one in a picture). *L'homme a un chapeau sur la tête. Que veut dire le mot 'fleuve'? Le Mississipi est un fleuve. Le Ohio est un fleuve.*" "*Was heiszt Schlafzimmer? Dies ist ein Zimmer, nicht wahr? Ein Schulzimmer? Ein Schlafzimmer ist ein Zimmer, in dem man schläft. Was heiszt nackt? Nackt ist einer, wenn er keine Kleider an hat.*" (2) By gesture, the meanings of numerous words can be conveyed, for instance, in illustrating *gehen*, *schlagen*, *baisser*, *enlever*, *boire*, *manger*, *fumer*, *grand*, *petit*, *long*, *court*, *perçant* (by stopping up the ears). (3) By mimicry, as for instance in imitating phenomena of nature, calls of animals and other sounds and noises; indicating sweet, bitter, ugly, pretty, happy, sad, by the proper facial expression and gesture. (4) By intonation of sentences used. (5) By use of known synonyms, antonyms, analogous phrases, and sometimes by means of the context. For the technique of the question-and-answer method see Chapter VII.

Reading in concert should never be neglected in the elementary stage. It is well, however, to have this preceded by good individual reading of the teacher or an excellent student. Concert reading is valuable, (1) for in pronunciation all the students are engaged simultaneously; (2) for reviewing the meaning; (3) for encouraging those who lack confidence in reading or speaking; (4) for relaxation after a hard drill. It requires, however, the greatest vigilance on the part of the teacher to see that all are pronouncing and handling the rhythms well, and that all are doing their best.

An excellent test and drill is for the teacher to give a word, generally a noun or verb form found in the text studied, and to require a student to supply the sentence in which it is found. In order to do this the text must be thoroughly developed by direct-method procedures; gone over again, then read by one, then by the whole class in concert.

If a song is taught, it must be first developed; that is, the words must be explained. Next, it should be read by one, then in concert, and finally sung. For a device for reviewing the vocabulary of an elementary text by categories we may ask questions like these: What is *long*, *young*, *short*, *strong?* Of what are the following parts: *the window*, *hand*, *letter?* How is: *the chalk*, *floor*, *book*, *window* (to bring out adjectives)? What does one do with *the pen*, *chair*, *board*, *hat?* Who, or what, *bites*, *studies*, *works*, *runs*, or *barks?* Where is the *table*, *chair*, *window*, *head*, or *ship?*

An important point about oral work is the duration of the drills. Breymann[1] gives 12 to 13 minutes as the proper length of these exercises, and certainly this should be the maximum for our conditions, if by this we mean drill for proficiency in oral utterance, not including therein drill in grammar or oral exercises to discuss reading.

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[1] *Op. cit.*, 3: 121.

An excellent device for oral work is series teaching. Series consist of the arrangement of steps of an action, or occurrence, in a natural sequence, that is, in successive steps (sentences); as these occur naturally when the act is being performed, or the event transpires. The advantage in this arrangement is that matter so arranged is much more easily recalled, and therefore more easily retained, than linguistic material in other forms. Gouin's idea has been slightly modified by others and adapted to direct-method grammar work.

Much stress is laid upon the verb, which forms the starting point. This is opposed to the idea of starting from the actual, or pictured, object. Psychological considerations have shown that, as long as the vocabulary of the child is still rudimentary, it is well to begin with the object in teaching foreign languages, that is, in so far as the child knows, as yet, no names for the objects and consequently learns the foreign word as the name of the object or attribute. Beyond this early age it is psychologically and pedagogically better to start with the action word, the verb. The subjective act and its name (in the foreign language) are far more intimately associated than the objective thing and its name (in the foreign language), and hence the verb should be used as the first approach to the foreign tongue.

Thus, in teaching series like the following, the teacher performs the act, or, when this is impossible, gestures it out, and speaks the verb simultaneously, the class repeating it after him. This whole is repeated several times and thus the word is ingrained, as it were, in the student's mind. After the verb has been grasped, subject and object are added gradually, and the whole sentence repeated. Thus through the paragraph, the class repeating each verb and sentence as before. The following may serve as examples of series:

Je ramasse le papier.

Je me lève.
Je sors du banc.
Je me baisse.
Je ramasse le papier.
Je me redresse.
Je jette le papier dans le panier.
Monsieur le professeur me remercie.
Je vais à ma place.
Je m'assieds.

Comprenez-vous? Oui, je comprends.
Répétez cela, s'il vous plaît. Merci.

Die Magd putzt die Lampe.

Sie trägt die Lampe in die Küche.
Sie stellt sie auf den Küchentisch.
Sie entfernt den Schirm und stellt ihn auf den Tisch.
Sie entfernt auch den Cylinder.

Sie reinigt den Cylinder mit Seife und Wasser.
Sie trocknet ihn mit einem reinen Tuch ab.

Me despierto.

Me despierto temprano.
Yo abro los ojos.
Yo veo la luz.
Me levanto.
Me lavo.
Me visto.

El reloj marcha.

El horario y el minutero vuelvan.
El secondario vuelve más de prisa.
Son las dos.
Una hora pasa.
¿Ahora que hora es?
Son las tres.

If the series are printed on loose leaves, the lesson is not handed the student before it has been thoroughly learned in this way. This makes it necessary for the student to get it by ear: a most valuable thing. When now the lesson is handed out, it is read by the teacher and each sentence repeated in concert by the class, and, if necessary, singly, by individuals.

With such careful work the matter is thoroughly learned by the end of the period and it remains for the student only to review it a number of times in preparation for the recitation on it. After the opening weeks, grammar exercises in writing and speaking based upon the series are assigned in addition.

The recitation may occasionally consist of each student in turn giving a sentence of the series, but more prevalently one of the following or similar exercises are used:

(*To be done without seeing the text*)

1. One student speaks a sentence in the present tense. Another of the class repeats it in the second person, singular or the third, plural (polite form). This seems, then, a natural way to answer, and as far as possible this should be striven for in all these exercises.
2. An individual or class repeats in first person, plural or in the third, singular, using masculine or feminine pronouns in this case, as a boy, or a girl, has spoken.
3. If two students speak the sentence, then the class may answer by repeating in the third person (German) or second person (French, Spanish), plural.
4. One student speaks in the present affirmative (as the series is written) and another, or the class, answers by repeating in the interrogative — junior high school, in second person, singular, in other classes generally in the second person, plural (French, Spanish), or in the third person, plural (German).
5. One student speaks in the present affirmative, another, or the class, replies by repeating in the past tense, using an adverb as *hier*, *gestern*, *ayer*, with each sentence. This will drill inverted order in German incidentally.
6. The class answers by repeating the sentence in one of the other tenses, now past anterior, now future, etc., as there is need of drill on a particular tense. Care must be taken to put in the proper adverbs so as to give the proper temporal setting: *hier*, *dernier année*, *année prochain*, *demain*, etc.

7. One student speaks in the present affirmative, another, or the class, answers by repeating the sentence in the negative.
8. Ditto, and repeat in the affirmative, negative.
9. If some sentences contain reflexive verbs, the repetition will afford excellent, live drill in the use of the reflexive pronouns. Repeat now in one tense, now in another, to drill the position of the reflexives.
10. To drill pronouns and order of pronouns. One student speaks a sentence in the present, another, or the class, answers by repeating and substituting pronouns for nouns.
11. To drill the order of the other parts of the sentence, a student speaks a sentence, another, or the class, answers by repeating in a compound tense — now one, now another, according as the teacher sees the need.
12. To drill number of nouns, adjectives, pronouns, and verbs, one student speaks a sentence, another, or the class, answers by repeating it in the plural. Care must be taken to base this on a series with which this is appropriate.

    NOTE. Relatives are best drilled in connection with a reading text when the procedure of basing relative clauses on nouns is more appropriate.
13. All the exercises given can also be used for written work at the board in the same manner; also for home work as mutation exercises.

Frequent reviews of the series studied are taken and the vocabulary is thus thoroughly learned.

A profitable exercise when the class has advanced sufficiently is to form new original series of material read, or heard, in class, or experienced. Care must be taken to keep the sentences simple and to get each series correctly written after it has been composed. For this purpose, a good student should be sent to the board to write it, the others writing it at the same time in their books.

The danger in this work is that teachers may use it almost purely as memory work, that is, they may not base drill exercises upon it, thinking that grammar will be learned by repeating the sentences. With the definite system of basing direct-method grammar upon the series, this danger is readily avoided.

The early introduction of series-work proves a great enlivening factor, and since series are easier to handle than most other direct-method systems, they are especially welcome to inexperienced teachers.[1]

M. Gouin sought to teach the entire vocabulary of a language in series.[2] Many teachers prefer to use series merely as preliminary to, and an accompaniment of, elementary reading and as an occasional variant exercise later on in the course. Their greatest value is in aiding the pupil to acquire vocabulary and in producing a feeling for the language.

NOTE. For further devices for teaching oral French, see *Modern Language Journal*, 2 : 203–215.

For devices and programs for teaching French in junior high school, see also *Modern Language Journal*, 1 : 157–169, 1918.

For data concerning the extent to which instruction in phonetics and oral work is practiced in colleges, see *Modern Language Journal*, 2 : 271 ff.

HANDY LIST OF TEACHING DEVICES

1. Speak simple sentences about the persons and things in the room, the room itself. Tell about the things — color, material, size, number; where they stand, what they are for; about the persons — their size, age, sex, color of hair, clothing, and what they are doing. These sentences should be upon first presentation largely in question form.

2. Give in the foreign language all directions for doing any task. Then ask the one doing the acts to say what he is doing, as he does it, or have the class say what he is doing, as he does it; or as the teacher does it.

3. Conduct oral work by means of a chart, or picture, which can be seen by the whole class, and plan the exact work well in advance. Write down the name of the work here.

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[1] Such series are published by Series Publishing Company, Oxford, Ohio.

[2] Gouin, F., *The Art of Teaching and Studying Languages*. Translated by H. Swan and V. Betis (London and New York; 1907).

4. After some such act has been performed, ask a student, or the class, to tell what he has done (past or perfect tense); or after you have told him what to do, have the class tell what he is going to do (future tense), before he does so.

5. Have a stanza of a song sung. Sing a stanza occasionally, after it has been memorized.

6. Have parts of the multiplication table spoken, or give problems (4 times 4 minus 2 plus 3 equals ?); or have a person, or the class, or a section of the class, count with cardinals, or with ordinals, or with fractions: $\frac{1}{2}$ $\frac{1}{3}$ $\frac{1}{4}$ $\frac{1}{5}$, etc.

7. Tell time of day by use of a cardboard dial, moving the hands quickly and calling on one and another. Review names of division of day: morning, noon, night, etc.; and the greetings used at each time of day.

8. Review names of days, months, seasons, years, and dates by having dates of birthdays, or holidays given. Conduct the same review at another time by using a large wall calendar.

9. In junior high school, play one of the linguistic games mentioned in this chapter, or in Chapter X, or others. Write the name of the same here and check for use.

10. Read riddles for the class to solve.

11. Have pupils bring in a poem or anecdote already studied and read it, each in his best style.

12. Quiz in the foreign language on the contents of the text; require also answers in the foreign language.

13. For method of quiz see also Chapter VII.

14. Assign passage for memorizing; read it nicely before assigning it.

15. Hear such a passage retold by a person, or the class, or a section of it.

16. Have a series composed by the class on such themes as: I arise and dress. I eat breakfast (dinner, supper). I go to church (school). I go to bed. I wash. I buy a newspaper, etc.

17. Have a pupil recite such a series, and after each sentence, have the class repeat the sentence in the interrogative-affirmative, interrogative-negative, form.

18. Or have the class repeat each sentence in the third, singular, after the speaker has done so in the first person, singular, etc.

19. What am I doing? Quick work in naming actions (with the accompanying pronouns, nouns, adjectives) performed by the teacher. Use polite forms of verbs.

20. When the recitation on a text, or a series, drags, it is well occasionally to suggest a foolish conclusion or answer to arouse opposition or jolt the lagging speaker. Use this, both in quizzing on texts and in reviewing series.

21. Review a vocabulary by categories.

Problems

Does verbal or ideational material which has been heard but once ordinarily disappear from consciousness readily? Meumann, E., *The Psychology of Learning*, page 145.

Why is translation, either way, best avoided for months in elementary work with children? Cf. also Chapter II.

What do you think of a plan to set up speaking, grammar, reading as the chief aim in the elementary, intermediate, and advanced stages of a high-school course, respectively? Criticize this plan, or defend it.

Is the sound (aural image) an important factor in learning to read?

CHAPTER SEVEN

READING

THE proximate aims in reading may be stated as the acquisition of an active and a passive vocabulary and training in sentential analysis, the ultimate aim being the formation of good habits of study and the ability to get a knowledge of the foreign civilization, its institutions, customs, and ideals, through the foreign language itself.

How are these aims to be achieved? Strictly speaking, one needs in reading only a passive vocabulary. But in direct-method teaching, we have come to use reading exercises, or rather exercises based upon the material read, to acquire active vocabulary. If speaking, writing, and the discipline derived from grammatical study were not set up as aims in our courses, then we should not need to base exercises upon our reading texts other than such as bring out a clear understanding of the content.

We need to get this clearly in mind. The sort of drills we prevalently base upon our intensive reading is clearly intended to aid in hearing (understanding the spoken language), speaking and writing, and not reading *per se* at all. Even oral rendition is, primarily, used as an exercise auxiliary to pronunciation and speaking, and not for getting the sense of the passage.

However, should we advocate, then, mere reading and translating as the old school practiced it? No, we should not. These exercises in hearing, speaking, and writing serve to make the comprehension of matter read more immediate and more clear. In psychological terms, these exercises provide for added images of words (aural, graphic, motor), and hence make for greater familiarity with words and for a fuller apperception of later perceptions. They also make it possible later to treat the reading lesson entirely by means of the foreign language, which serves further to keep in use and to develop the aural, oral, and graphic centers.

Even if speaking and writing were not set up as aims, we should still advise using the direct method of approach to reading texts, and the direct-method exercises based upon them, unless the time to be devoted to the language is so short that only the barest translation can be undertaken.

Far from disparaging direct-method exercises as based on reading texts, then, we wish merely to call attention to the fact that mere getting-the-sense reading is also of the greatest importance. All the more so, since in intensive treatment, as we now use it, only small amounts of reading matter can be covered — much smaller than by the old method. We need to supplement this intensive reading by assignments which involve reading of larger amounts and which inculcate a love of such reading.

Let us take up intensive reading first, and first of all the assignment. As has been stated before, in the early stages, all matter must be presented orally. The usual method of such presentation is that the teacher reads aloud, the class having the books closed. Naturally some words are not understood. Here the teacher will make use of the expedients for explaining new words which were given in Chapter V. After a time, in the second year in high school, perhaps, when the assignments become longer and lack of time prevents going over the matter with books closed, the class may be allowed to open their books during this development. This is the more allowable, since the class does not need the exercise in hearing so badly as in earlier stages, and the sight of the printed page is no longer confusing.

And at this stage it is that many teachers drop the development exercise altogether or go over the assignment only in so far as they indicate the grammar drills to be based on it. This is a mistake — some development there should be. The contents which will serve to awaken interest should be gone over. Occasionally the question may be propounded: What do you think is going to happen in the next few pages or the next chapter? This much at least should be done in all classes, even the fourth or sixth in high school.

In the earlier stages of reading, the assignment should be developed as suggested, and all unusual difficulties, new words, etc., cleared up.

Besides the means for interpreting words unknown to the class which have been discussed in Chapter VI there is interpretation by drawing swift sketches on the blackboard, for instance, of trees with branches, twigs, trunk, bark, leaves; sun, moon, which readily may be used to convey the meaning of sunbeam, moonbeam, sunlight by drawing a few slanting rays; utensils and houses.

Abstract terms also can be interpreted: (*a*) by definition — *menteur*, *Lügner*, a man who does not speak the truth lies, is a liar; (*b*) by illustration, *né*, *geboren* — George Washington was born on the 22d of February, Lincoln was born on the 12th of February, etc.; *trahir*, *verraten* — Benedict Arnold betrayed his country, Judas betrayed Christ; *regner*, *regieren*, Alphonso XIII rules over Spain, George VI rules over England, etc.

Next, the work to be done in preparation for the next hour should be set forth clearly: questions and answers on the text, retelling the contents, grammatical drills, etc., whatever it may be. Each kind of work, and its amount, and the way to do it, should be illustrated as far as necessary, the examples being supplied, of course, with the aid of the class.

These things must be done for every assignment: (1) Create an interest in it. (2) Clear away the greatest difficulties, or samples of these. (3) Lay out clearly the work to be done. (4) Show by examples how the various kinds of exercises required are to be done. These four points are vital, and the young teacher should have them graphically before him whenever he develops an assignment.

What are the means of gauging the student's comprehension of the text?

The old standard method was, of course, translation. Our present-day practice is, however, to reduce translation to a minimum. But the question of how large this minimum shall be is, for many teachers, still an open one. The whole question is therefore so important that we shall treat it in a separate place, later on in this chapter. Suffice it here to say that in direct method it is used only for isolated passages, and then quite prevalently at the board — and not at all in the elementary stage — as an exercise for poorer students. Or it is used in upper classes as fine translation; i.e., as an exercise in writing English.

Such translations as are made at the board may be made use of, if desired, by having other students translate them back into the foreign language, care being first taken to see that the English translation is correct.

The most common means in direct-method practice is, no doubt, asking questions on the text in the foreign language and requiring answers in the same. That these must be very simple in the initial stages is patent. Such quizzing is difficult for the young teacher unless he has been taught by the same method.

In the first place, the lists of questions now commonly appended to texts will not do for this purpose. They strike only a few important points of the text and thus do not form a sufficient quiz. They are also generally too difficult, and, finally, they are unsuited to elementary study, because the student who uses them sees the printed form before the spoken, which is contrary to our established principle. These questions in texts are very commendable as a basis for written work (see Chapter VIII), but not for the purpose here in hand.

Is there possible any thoroughly organized scheme of quizzing on reading texts? Yes, there are only a limited number of types of questions, about nine or ten, which need to be asked to bring out all the information we desire. The teacher should make a study of these and should finally teach his class how to form them, whereupon the students may do this quizzing themselves, which is naturally far preferable. The types are:

(*a*) Question concerning the subject: *Qui viendra? Qui le lui donne? Wer hat es gesehen? Wer behauptete so und so? ¿Quién contesto bien?*

(*b*) Question concerning the verb: *Qu'est-ce qu'il* (*on, elle, ils, tu*) *a fait? Was hat er getan? ¿Qué hago, vendía?*

(*c*) Question concerning the object: *Qu'est-ce qu'il a apporté, rapporté, emmené, cru, fait,* etc.? *Was haben sie gesagt, geglaubt, besorgt,* etc.? *¿Qué tengo, habló?*

(*d*) Question concerning the indirect object: *A qui l'a-t-il donné? De qui a-t-il parlé? Wem gehört es? Wem tat er das? ¿A quién hablo yo?*

(*e*) Question concerning the attribute: *Quelle manière de l'homme est-il? Quelle femme? Quel livre?* etc. *Was für ein*, or *welches, Haus? Tier? Welcher Glaube?* etc. *¿Qué caballos tiene Juan?*

(*f*) Question concerning the adverb of time: *Quand l'a-t-il fait? Wann besorgte er es? ¿Cuándo fué?*

(*g*) Question concerning the adverb of place: *Où l'a-t-il vu? D'où vient-il? Wohin gingen sie? Wo liessen sie es? ¿Dónde estoy?*

(*h*) Question concerning the adverb of manner: *Comment l'a-t-il fait, dit, envoyé,* etc.? *Wie gingen sie? Wie bliest es? ¿Cómo contesto a las preguntas?*

(*i*) Question concerning the complement: *Comment a-t-il fait le livre?* (*Il l'a fait* — .) *Wie machte sie die Stube?* (*Sie machte sie rein.*) *¿Cómo hago los zapatos?* (*Los hago nuevos.*)

A few additional types which are possible, e.g., the adverb of degree, will probably be unnecessary or can be dictated by the teacher.

The teacher begins the course in reading by asking the simplest questions and requiring the student to answer them in the foreign language with the book open before him. Later on, he will be required to answer them with book closed. Still later, when the class has acquired considerable facility in this — possibly during the second year in high school or toward the end of the first year in college — the class may be taught how to form the various types of questions. Beginning with the easier types, the class is asked to write the questions covering a page or two of the text in preparation of the lesson. These may be put on the board the next day, corrected, and used as the basis of the quiz. In the course of a week or two all the types may thus be studied and learned, and the students may do their first quizzing.

When the students do the quizzing, the teacher should designate the persons who are to answer. In this way, the class can be taught to conduct this portion of the recitation with practically only supervisory aid from the teacher.

After the class has sufficient ability in composing these questions, the writing of them may be discontinued, but the class should be required to go over the lesson and plan the questions until this no longer presents difficulties.

In teaching a class to form these questions, they should be taught not to make them so easy that they are answerable by "Yes" or "No," or other single words. One student should be allowed to ask, say, a dozen questions, before another is asked to take up the quizzing. The person answering may be allowed to answer half a dozen or more questions in succession, as changing interlocutor, or the one answering, frequently, consumes time.

Complete sentences should be insisted on as answers except in advanced classes where the more natural forms of colloquial discourse can be attained by not always insisting upon this.

An excellent exercise, especially after a hard task like question and answer or the *key words* exercise, is for the class to write in their notebooks answers to questions over the text contained in many of our present-day texts. A severe drill should certainly not extend over 10 minutes. Then a change to other work: reading in concert, singing, playing a game in elementary high-school work, etc., is called for. This proposed writing offers such a change also. The pupils have been over the text twice, first by means of the development on the part of the teacher, and next by means of the recitation on it. Now they may write answers to the editor's questions on it. These will be corrected later.

In correcting such answers, it is not necessary to have them written on the board after they have been written in the notebooks. A better way of getting the attention of the whole class is to have the students read a sentence each, to correct these, and have the class make the corrections, to call for various expressions which others may have written and to suggest corrections in these. In calling for variants it is well not to censure mistakes too harshly and really to invite variants. If this exercise is gauged properly to the ability of the class, it needs a minimum of correction, and hence for by far the greater part of the time the students are *reading* and *hearing* good sentences.

Reading aloud with expression is a means much valued by some and when the passage is not too abstract and pronunciation has been carefully taught and good expression insisted on, this may indeed serve to gauge the student's comprehension. However, to rely upon this alone, or upon any one means alone, would not only be unsafe but monotonous. As a stimulus to expressive reading, the teacher should read occasionally. A pause may be made now and then and a student asked to repeat the last sentence read, or to give the content of what has been read. Occasionally, also, several of the good readers may be asked to prepare the lesson with a view to reading it in class the next day. In reading dramas the rôles may be assigned beforehand for such preparation.

In reading lyrics, especially, this *vive voce* rendering by pupils is an excellent means of learning whether they have understood the piece. Reading in concert should be used very frequently, also, for other reasons (see Chapter VI).

A further gauge of comprehension for advanced classes is: Can the pupil tell the contents in his own words in the foreign language, or in the mother tongue? However, the latter is not to be used except rarely, not at all in early stages, and later only in case of a very dull student. Retelling in the foreign language needs to be used with caution, also. It is possible to give a sort of summary of contents which touches merely a few outstanding points, but to allow such recitation to pass would induce superficiality in preparation.

Retelling contents is excellent for oral work, but poor for fixing the meaning of the reading text.

In having the contents retold in the foreign language, it is necessary to strike a happy medium between correcting every mistake made and letting serious mistakes go by uncorrected. The latter will never do. The former is not always necessary. By mimicry, raising the eyebrows, etc., the teacher indicates for the class whenever a mistake is committed. The object in not interrupting more than absolutely necessary is not to intimidate and discourage the speaker.

All the serious mistakes should, of course, be corrected at once. Here many slight expedients will suggest themselves to the sympathetic teacher. For instance, in order not to interrupt the speaker, Mr. H—— makes a practice, in case the wrong word-order in German has been used, of holding up two fingers to indicate "Put verb in the second place," or the little finger for "Verb at end of clause," whereupon the student immediately retrieves himself.

If he uses masculine article, or adjective, instead of feminine, the teacher merely says "Feminine." Thus with the slightest interruption the thing can be done. Here, as elsewhere, we must have in mind the most important pedagogical maxim that the learner must not be told the correct form (answer) but merely how to find it; i.e., we say "Feminine" instead of telling him the actual feminine form he is in need of, or we may suggest "Preterite" or "*Passé défini*" instead of telling him the actual form he needs. Wrong forms should, of course, never be repeated by the teacher and corrections should be made kindly since roughness and loudness discourage these efforts.

Now this sort of retelling should not be started too early; not before reasonably good sentences can be formed — possibly during the second year in high school. And what is more, it must not be done every day to the exclusion of other exercises, as I have seen this done. Moreover, a student must be allowed to speak for a few minutes only. Swift change from one to another, so that each may be given opportunity during the hour, is good practice.

The good points about this exercise are that it gets the student to speak in connected discourse, on a subject he knows, and under expert guidance. The danger is that glib-tongued students with good verbal memories may commit the matter without thorough comprehension, and the exercise thus degenerate, for them, into mere verbal memory work. This exercise must, therefore, be used in proper balance with our numerous other exercises. Very weak students or such as are weak in speaking ability need not be called upon to do this exercise. Another useful exercise is to have the class note down the errors of the narrator under the heads "Pronunciation," "Grammar," and "Words or Phrases"; another to have the class correct these errors after the speaker has finished.

Some who cannot speak readily will find the following exercise in writing more to their way of working. Especially with small classes, where correcting the work of individuals is possible, writing the contents of the reading lesson should be much used, but in large sections also it is not out of the question. For, while some are retelling portions, others may be writing other portions at the board. Occasionally also, a student may be sent to the board to write what another has just related. This latter serves to keep the class attentive to the narration. Of the copies made at the board, one may be corrected by the teacher, or excellent students may be sent to correct the various portions written.

The good point in this exercise is that it gives the student opportunity to write connectedly upon a subject he knows and under expert guidance, but care must be taken not to have so much written that it cannot be corrected as it should be.

Calling for synonyms or antonyms of words, or for parallel phrases, is another gauge of comprehension. This is not so exhilarating as the means already discussed. It is also more difficult for inexperienced teachers to handle. However, it is a very joy to some students, and as an occasional exercise it has its place. It is incidentally a review of vocabulary as shown in Chapter V.

Some teachers ask for the English equivalents of the most difficult words of the lesson, and feel that if the students are able to give these they have a sufficient comprehension of the text. However, it consumes considerable time. It may be used, in moderation, but should be done swiftly and always with books closed. In connection with it I suggest that the following exercise be used.

A most excellent exercise is picking out the *key words*, that is, the most important words, and requiring the student to supply the context, more or less literally, in the foreign language. Sometimes such a list of key words is placed on the board and the quiz based on them.

What other exercises may be based upon the text in order to strengthen the pupil's hold upon it? Here stands first and foremost the review of the preceding lesson, or lessons. Five to ten minutes spent in this way are as remunerative as anything that can be done. The possible procedures are many. Among the most common are retelling and rewriting contents, which should now naturally go better than on the preceding day. To expedite matters, portions can be written at the board while others are being narrated. Often, the written work can be corrected by excellent students. Occasionally weak students may be allowed to tell the contents in English, while better students write the same at the board in the foreign language.

Antonyms, synonyms, and derivative groups may be made the basis of the review. If the teacher called for these when the lesson was first recited on, students may now be asked to do this. Reviews of vocabulary can be taken in the form of topical groupings. Groups concerning certain departments of life or activity may be put together. For instance, one text may contain much vocabulary concerning the house and yard (e.g., Arnold, *Fritz auf Ferien*), or about the life of fishers (e.g., Loti, *Pêcheur d'Islande;* or Valdés, *José*). This vocabulary may then be reconstructed by mentioning in sentences and series the parts and equipment of the house and yard, what occurs in each, when, how, to what purpose, and with what result. Likewise the life of the fisher may be reconstructed: his family life, house, home, his boat, paraphernalia, work, and adventures. In this way the vocabulary is presented from a new point of view, an important thing in reviews.

Literary study of certain phenomena, also, proves excellent for the review. For instance, the kinds of motives may be picked out: motives of work, labor, religion, love, patriotism, art, family loyalty, etc. The predominance of some of these over others will serve to characterize the work in a degree. Or the characters may be analyzed by tabulating their traits as follows: (1) attributes ascribed to them directly by the author, or by others; (2) attributes brought out by what they say or do, or do not do.

The significance of the piece is a matter of greatest importance. The student should be allowed to discover this for himself by careful reading. Discussion of the various suggestions brought in by the class will serve the valuable purpose of creating interest as well as of inculcating the beginnings of literary study. (See further suggestions in Chapter XI.)

Dramatizations, also, may be used in review. Various students represent the characters of the piece and the contents are reproduced in dramatic form. With advanced classes this may be used as a variant exercise, in moderation.

Grammar exercises, much used in connection with reading, also serve to deepen the comprehension. They do not strictly belong to reviews of reading and are treated in Chapter IX.

In teaching reading we must remember that creating an interest in the matter read is half the work. Basing exercises in grammar and writing on it may be, and often is, overdone. Why should we base grammatical exercises upon an evanescent lyric of De Musset or a sublime passage of *Faust?* Is this the way to foster a love for the foreign literature? Must there be drudgery connected with everything, always?

In reading lyrics, memorizing is a fine exercise, especially for high-school students. But to render the lyric into prose and to base a relative clause upon each noun and supply an adjective for each substantive in it which has none, is not only the height of pedantry; it is poor pedagogy. One of the prime objects of the course in modern language is the creating of a love for the foreign literature. This is the way *not* to accomplish this.

True, easy rhymes, nursery couplets, and popular quatrains may very properly be used to inculcate grammatical usage; but real lyrics should be explained, studied, and then read in the teacher's best manner, later to be read similarly by the class. Parts should be memorized, recited, and become the *vade mecum* of the pupil. If it has been set to music, it should also be sung and thus become a part of the intellectual and emotional make-up of the student.

Teaching dramas presents also great difficulties and requires the greatest skill, especially the light comedies which are very hard to quiz upon. Retelling is possible, but not so satisfactory as in the case of ordinary prose, because the sequence of thought and action is harder to remember, and thus it becomes quite a strain upon the student. Rewriting, also, is difficult for the same reasons, especially for the comedies, where quips and quirks and banterings often fill up whole pages. Quizzing by *key words* is more feasible. Oral rendition may also be depended on more than for ordinary prose. The reading should be with assigned rôles.

When the pupils are able to read dramas, they are able also to undertake elementary literary studies, and in the drama they may be made acquainted with Freytag's scheme of the structure of the drama, which will give them many new points of interest.

In reviewing dramas and novels, plot and subplot, mood, general motive, technique (realistic, romantic, naturalistic, etc.), underlying philosophy, significance of the piece, analysis of characters will form excellent elementary studies to heighten the interest. Memorizing choice bits, also, should not be neglected.

With the aid of the exercises given in this chapter any text, whether it contains drill-exercises or not, can be used for intensive work. The main point is that only small portions are studied daily, but thoroughly assimilated by working them over in various forms. Many teachers violate this principle by assigning too much, thereby preventing thorough work, and by omitting careful daily and periodic reviews.

A further suggestion in regard to all of the exercises discussed is that the teacher will do well to take the list of them as printed at the end of this chapter and any others he may have tried, and make his day's lesson-plan with this in sight. This will insure a frequent change of work and avoid doing a certain few kinds of work to monotony.

SIGHT, EXTENSIVE, AND OPTIONAL READING

In linguistic study we need to get away from the narrow horizon of grammatical detail and to get a bird's-eye view of greater stretches of linguistic and literary landscape. This is best accomplished by extensive reading, without which the learner never really learns to read, and more important still, does not acquire a love of reading. Besides, it is pleasurable and gives the student a feeling of power and achievement. The proximate object is to acquire a greater passive vocabulary and greater ability to gather the meaning from the printed page, the ultimate object being acquaintance with the foreign civilization, including its literature.

To do this, so-called sight reading was formerly much practiced. This consisted in selecting an easy text and devoting a short time during the regular class period to having the students translate from it at sight. This is very easily handled and along with the regular prepared translation did a very good service. However, today teachers commonly do not care to have texts turned into English in this way. It is possible, of course, to change this procedure by having the student read aloud, then close the book and give in English, or in the foreign language, the gist of what he has read. This, especially the latter, has its place in teaching the weaker students how to read extensively. The objection to using this procedure for all of our extensive reading is that it is in reality only guessing and therefore serves to review vocabulary, but only to a slighter extent to acquire new words.

For these reasons, many teachers prefer to use prepared extensive reading instead. This means that a text easier than the one used for intensive work is assigned at intervals of a week or ten days for home preparation, the assignment being three to four times as large as that in intensive reading.

The student is directed to prepare it by reading it for the sense, to look up the necessary words and possibly to write the meanings *at the bottom of the page*, and to review this work at least once before coming to class.

One procedure in recitation is to call on individuals to tell successive portions in the foreign language. If a weak class, or one not yet trained to the work, cannot do this uniformly well, the best in the class can soon be trained to do so and others can be sent to the board to write portions in English or in the foreign language.

To rely upon oral rendition as a gauge of comprehension is, here, where no other exercises are based upon the text, not safe. If doubt of the student's comprehension arises, or if any one asks for a translation of a passage, it may be assigned for translation.

Such extensive reading may be begun even at the end of the first year in college classes and in the second year in high school. Numerous students drop the subject at the end of their first year, and even these should be given a taste of this work.

It is evident that we must depend on extensive reading to make up the amounts of reading which some colleges require for entrance, since our plan of intensive work makes possible reading only slight amounts.

If a second-year class in high school reads three pages a day intensively, it should read nine to twelve extensively. This every tenth day for the year of thirty-six weeks would net them 189 pages for the year. Correspondingly greater amounts would be read in the following two years.

If the love of reading good literature can be inspired in this way, it is possible to have the better students undertake, in addition, optional readings. These have been used more and more in recent years, in place often of the former required outside readings, which were often found rather unsatisfactory. The optional reading has the advantage that none but those qualified undertake it.

Optional reading seems most commonly to be conducted as follows. The teacher lays out a number of books belonging to the school collection, or others. He reads a passage from one and another, occasionally, says a few words about it to arouse further interest, and finally invites the class to take out for private reading such books as they are especially interested in.

When the book has been read, it is returned, and the student reports on its contents, either privately to the teacher, or to the class. Reports on such work are available and will be found stimulating. (See Appendix A.)

During vacations, especially, should this reading be encouraged. How much time is wasted during vacations, which might be reclaimed in this way! Students who cannot be induced to read in the foreign language will perhaps be glad of the loan of a book written in English about the foreign land.

The best practice suggests in regard to extensive readings: a modicum of sight reading in order to train up to extensive work; extensive reading for all as a regular class exercise;

optional readings during the year for all who can be won for this; and vacation-reading for more, if not all, members of the class.

TRANSLATION

The old school used translating exclusively, almost, of every other exercise except the grammatical. Three fourths of the entire time was devoted to it. All of every assignment was, as far as time allowed, translated word for word. Moreover, fine English, even good English, was not always insisted on. That made it almost purely a gauge of the student's comprehension and reduced it to a monotonous process which bore little relation to the student's needs. It was neither an immediate nor a remote end. The remote end is, of course, to learn to read, write, and speak, not to *translate.* But it is difficult to keep children and adolescents working at remote ends unless their interest can somehow be kept alive, unless there is something pleasurable about the work. Here was the weak point in their use of translation.

In the first place, development lessons were practically unknown. A certain uniform number of lines was the standard assignment. Beyond that, the student was given no interest whatever in the advance work. It is but natural that without the slightest interest in the lesson assigned, and with great difficulties to surmount purely *à coups de dictionnaire,* the work became a boredom. He knew nothing of the wealth of human interest in the text, and, of course, the æsthetic and emotional elements were also closed to him.

What we have just depicted is, of course, the dead level of mediocre teaching by means of translation. What an excellent, or even a good, live pedagogue could accomplish, even if he used translation largely, is attested by many of our best scholars. Thus James Russell Lowell says that the great masters of English style in his day formed themselves on French.[1]

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[1] *Latest Literary Essays and Addresses,* pages 131 ff. (Boston; 1891).

On the other hand, the reformers — that is, the advocates of the direct method — at first rejected translation altogether: *Übersetzen ist eine Kunst, die mit der Schule nichts zu tun hat!* was their battle cry. They substituted for translation many of the devices which have already been described in the foregoing discussion of Reading. The reformers became more moderate in their hatred of translation as the years went by, but the direct-method practice is still to reduce it to a minimum.

Of the experiments on translation the most interesting for American teachers is, no doubt, Clarahan's, already quoted in Chapter I, which shows that translation may be reduced to a minimum and still better results achieved than by the old method.

But there are still ardent advocates of much translation. Of these apologists Mr. Morgan[1] is the latest.

We need not agree with all of his contentions. Especially we must insist that there be no translation in the elementary stages or before the new speech habits have had time to be formed. Further, when Morgan shows that the professional translators whose manuscripts he read had failed to get the meaning of the original, it is also plain from these instances that translation is not always a specific for getting the sense. It is then largely a means of detecting errors, and, as we know, we have also other means of accomplishing this. However, with Morgan's main contention that translation should have a place among our exercises we agree heartily. In Germany this return swing of the pendulum occurred long since.[2] Morgan has, however, failed to notice the most important point, from the standpoint of educational philosophy; namely, that translation is valuable because the teacher knows precisely what the student is attempting to express, and has in the sentence as translated the sure gauge as to whether he has succeeded. This is not true in English classes, where the teacher is able to judge merely whether the sentence contains good thought, but not whether it expresses what the student intended it to. Thus, translation is of great value both to the student's thought and to his English,

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[1] *Modern Language Journal,* 1: 235–242, 1917.

[2] Breymann, *op. cit.,* pages 112–113, 109, 116.

If translation has been overdone to boredom, is that a sufficient reason for casting it overboard entirely? It must have some virtues if properly used; otherwise, generations of teachers had not used it. Reformers commonly overshoot the mark. They have evidently done so in this case. That most of them have reinstated translation to some degree is the proof that they themselves feel this. The new exercises are excellent, vivifying like a fresh breeze from God's great ocean, but we need not search long before we come across a class retelling excellently or answering correctly in the foreign language good questions of fellow pupils or teacher and still occasionally being quite wide of the precise meaning of difficult or idiomatic passages.

Is there any compromise possible? Must it be the one or the other extreme? As indicated above, the radicals are reverting to translation. Some are using it as an occasional literary exercise in English, others use it moderately throughout.

And finally this point must be emphasized: Translating must be used as a test, not as an assignment, except in the case of the literary translations mentioned.

There is, of course, still considerable translating done in the United States; perforce, say some teachers, because of the college-entrance examinations which loom large on the horizon. But the day is evidently coming when the occasion for this flat-footed argument will be removed; indeed, it has been in a degree already.

Translating need not be done every day nor for the whole assignment, in order to reap its good results. The help given weak students by calling for translation of difficult passages is considerable. It helps them over difficulties and keeps all looking closely at constructions and for fine shades of meaning. In order to supply an extra stimulus for the occasional fine rendition of passages or short pieces there should be coöperation with the department of English whereby such translations can be accepted as English compositions. This is being successfully operated by some and should prove a welcome suggestion to others.

Finally, translation should not be practiced to the extent where *it vitiates the foreign atmosphere which we are attempting to establish in the classroom*, especially in the earlier stages, when the new linguistic habits have not been sufficiently automatized. If, in later stages, the review lesson is recited in the foreign language and the assignment is quizzed on in it, and such other exercises as are necessary are performed in it, the time spent on a minimum of translation will be so sandwiched in between as not to do damage to the growing sense of language.

The most important points to be borne in mind in connection with the use of translation are: (1) it must not consume a great deal of time; (2) it must be avoided in elementary work, since its use prevents the growth of *Sprachgefühl;* (3) extemporaneous translations are the best; that is, no passages (except in case of the literary translations mentioned) should be assigned in advance for translation; (4) fine translations in advanced classes, say, once or twice a semester, in coöperation with the English department, if possible.

As to the kind of texts used in first-year French in college, see J. Van Horne, *Modern Language Journal*, 3 : 154, where it is shown that 67 per cent of these texts are literary (books, not pages, being counted); see also *Modern Language Journal*, 2 : 268–270, where lists of reading texts used in first-year French in numerous colleges are listed. In first-year French in college, 300 pages are read on an average, *Le Voyage de M. Perrichon* being the most popular text read, with *L'Abbé Constantin*, *Colomba*, and short stories by Daudet and Maupassant following. In the second year, the following are the most popular in the order named: *Colomba*, *Les Misérables*, *Hernani*, *Le Gendre de M. Poirier*, Daudet's short stories. (See *Modern Language Journal*, 3: 143–158.) In first-year Spanish classes in college, 60 per cent of the texts are literary, and the average number of pages read is 281. In second-year Spanish in college, classics are being used less than formerly. The average number of pages read is 626. For detailed statistics and lists of the texts m commonly used see *Modern Language Journal*, 3: 218–230.

HANDY LIST OF TEACHING DEVICES

1. Create an interest in the new assignment. Clear away the greatest difficulties or examples of these. Lay out clearly the work to be done. Show by examples how the various kinds of exercises required are to be done.
2. Review preceding lesson, (*a*) by having contents retold, (*b*) by writing contents on the board.
3. Ask questions over the text in foreign language and insist on sentences in foreign language. Use types of questions suggested in this chapter.
4. (*a*) Call for passages a translation of which is desired, and have these made at the board by the poorer students; (*b*) correct them; (*c*) have them put back into foreign language by good students without aid.
5. Have second- or third-year class write type questions on a page or passage of text. Have some of the students read these and have others answer them.
6. Read a passage in your best style and ask students to do the same with another passage.
7. Assign the rôles of a drama or comedy for such expressive reading.

8. Have contents retold (in upper classes). Occasionally send a pupil to the board to rewrite what has just been retold.

9. Have class write in their notebooks answers to printed questions on the text as a variant exercise.

10. Call for synonyms, antonyms, cognates, or equivalent expressions.

11. Tell or read a short anecdote (easier than the regular text), and have it retold immediately or the next day.

12. Give key word and call for context in foreign language.

13. Have the piece dramatized by assigning the various rôles.

14. Have a passage recited which had previously been assigned for memorizing.

15. Have contents of extensive reading retold.

16. Have a student who has read a book outside of class give a résumé of its contents in English or the foreign language.

17. Sight reading, timing so many minutes per page. Then ask the reader to tell contents.

18. Have class note down under the headings of "Pronunciation," "Grammar," and "Words or Phrases" the errors made by one narrating contents of a piece. Then notice and correct the errors.

Problems

Select a short passage of French (German, Spanish) and write out an interpretation of the words, supposing the class to have had no French (German, Spanish) — by using, as method of interpretation: objects, pictures, gesticulation (acting it out), definition, guessing from the context, or translation.

What kinds of texts should be used for extensive reading, in your opinion? Plan the extensive readings for the second-, third-, and fourth-year French, German, or Spanish in high school, giving reference to the edition of each book to be used.

CHAPTER EIGHT

WRITING

UNDER the direct method, the aim in writing can hardly be characterized as a utilitarian one. We can scarcely conceive of a student who should take a course in German, French, or Spanish in order to become a professional translator, or a writer in the foreign tongue. Consular officials as well as diplomats will need ability in writing, particularly an acquaintance with business usage, but consuls and diplomatists are so few and far between that we cannot set writing as an aim for their special benefit. More can be said for a course in writing as a means of learning business correspondence. But this will be taken up in Chapter XIV.

Beyond this, there is practically no utilitarian aim. The aim is rather disciplinary, and to be an aid to accuracy, as it is largely in grammatical study. Writing is also an auxiliary to reading, in so far as the careful drill coincident to writing gives the learner a better command of forms.

As to the value of written work, we must recognize further that writing is the only real test of the extent to which the *whole class* has understood. That is, in speaking, or translating orally, only one person can perform at a time and on a given passage of text.

Another consideration is that, in speaking, many incorrect forms pass unnoticed because of imperfect articulation, or hearing, or both, or on account of poor acoustic conditions in the room, or haste, or fatigue. The teacher, as well as the pupils, thinks he hears the correct form, whereas if the performer is sent to the board to write what he has just said, very often mistakes will be found in it.

Writing is then akin to grammar study in our practice, and in the elementary stage the writing will be done largely in connection with the work in grammar. The progression may be: reproducing matter verbatim — that is, merely copying it to learn spelling, and to fix forms in mind; copying texts with variations of the grammatical accidence — as person, number, tense of verbs, case and number of nouns with their modifiers, case and number of pronouns, supplying attributive adjectives, making changes in word order, etc.

Such work should be begun as supplementary to the drills in the grammar, even in the first semester. It may be based on the texts contained in the grammar, or upon the reading text. If we attempt to have some written work at each hour, as we should, the teacher will necessarily improvise such exercises, unless he uses a beginner's book or a reading text which provides for a great number of these.

If such exercises are improvised and dictated to the class, it will be necessary to follow some definite plan; otherwise undue drill may be given on some points to the detriment of others. Checking the subjects when they have been studied and drilled, in a check list, or in the index of a grammar, will serve.

One form of writing which is indispensable, not only in the first year, but throughout the course, is dictation. Its object is to test hearing, quick comprehension, the knowledge of accidence, orthography, and punctuation. If the papers are corrected as will be indicated further on, it becomes a drill in these subjects. It should be begun as soon as the class has acquired a good pronunciation.

For the first year, at least, the pieces dictated should be such as have already been studied in the grammar, or reader. Later on, short anecdotes or sketches may be used. If there is a bit of humor in them, so much the better. The passage must be short because of the strenuous nature of the work. Beginning with three or four lines, it should never go beyond a dozen. For an example of the sort of material needed, see Bruce's *Dictées Françaises* (D. C. Heath & Co.). Sometimes a passage from the lesson of the day may be used. It should be done in notebooks, not at the board, for the reason that it is unduly taxing to stand and write with chalk, and much energy may be wasted in this way. A good way is to have one student write at the board. After the writing is done, the notebooks may be interchanged and corrected on the right-hand margin, as well as each student is able to do this. Finally, the teacher corrects the copy written by the student at the board, the books are again interchanged, and the work corrected on the left-hand margin, according to the teacher's corrections made at the board.

This gives a double drill in correcting. However, some teachers prefer to correct the copy at the board at once and have the students make the eventual correction in the books at once, following him. Finally, the notebooks are called for and retained until the next day to receive the teacher's grade. It is best to require separate notebooks for this purpose.

In dictating, the teacher should read slowly and very distinctly, but should *not repeat* or at most should repeat only once. Marks of punctuation should not be dictated, but students should be required to use the proper ones. If the matter dictated is at all difficult, the teacher may read it over once to the class before dictating it, and may pause to explain new or difficult words, if there are any.

Dictation trains in thinking and acting simultaneously. It provides excellent drill and may, among other things, be used to wake up a drowsy class. The teacher must remember, however, that some students have better hearing than others and are endowed with quicker reactions. Slowness in this work must not be marked down as mistakes are when ample time for reflection and reaction is given.

Another use for dictation is in getting matter, such as directions for drills, upon the student's notebook. For instance, if questions on a reading text are not contained in the text which is being used, it may be desirable to dictate such.

In teaching German, the German script should not be used for writing dictations. This raises the question of teaching German script. Should it be taught the first year? Should it be taught at all? And, if taught, should it be taught sufficiently for the student to use it, or merely to be able to read it?

The only use he will have for it is to read letters written in it. Will he ever need to do this? The great bulk of German letters are written with the Latin (English) letters and business letters are written on the typewriter. As long as we require German script in German classes, teachers will, of course, need to be able to write it.

A helpful and suggestive article on dictation has appeared[1] which does not go beyond the summary of theory and practice given above, but which contains valuable tabulations of the errors actually committed by a class during one school year. These show that the commonest mistakes committed in the (German) class in question were: words omitted, 159; confusion of dative and accusative, 142; *Umlaut* omitted, 119; capital omitted, 111; mistakes in case, not dative-accusative, 98; use of wrong word, 98; omission of *h*, 65; wrong gender, 58; single for double consonant, 51.

The method of correcting — done in this case by the teacher, outside of class — is noteworthy.

> "In correcting the dictation exercises, the teacher indicates mistakes by underlining the wrong word with red ink. The student must correct all mistakes, using the left-hand page. If a word has been misspelled, let the student write the word correctly on the left-hand page in the position corresponding to the position of the incorrect word. As a rule it is not necessary to ask students to re-

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[1] Betz, Annette, "The Function of Dictation in the Teaching of Modern Languages," *Modern Language Journal*, 2: 150–157, 1918.

write the whole exercise. This procedure will simplify greatly the work of checking corrections."

All written work which is to be done should be gone over carefully in assigning it, in order to make sure that the student will commit a minimum of errors. In the elementary course, especially, he should not be asked to write anything, in home work or in class, which he has not heard, read, and studied, except dictations, of course.[1]

Written work is not done as much as it should be. One of the reasons for this is the great labor of correcting which it entails. What amount of correcting of notebooks on the part of the teacher can we demand, and should facilities provide for? Enough so that he is able to give a fair estimate of the student's writing ability at any time. Some correcting he must do. The teacher who does none of it is missing an opportunity. Some teachers do a great deal of it, but fail to get the student's attention directed to the corrections and thus fail to help him much. Means to get him to see the corrections must be taken. Three possible exercises are: (1) Have him rewrite it on the opposite page of his notebook, after the corrections have been made; (2) merely indicate the place and nature of the error, requiring him to supply the proper forms and locutions; (3) make the corrections at the board and require him to enter them on his own, or another's, notebook. This last is possible only where all have written the same matter.

To make correcting easier, we need a set of symbols to indicate errors, such as are in rather common use among teachers of English. The National Federation of Modern Language Teachers should set about inventing and standardizing such a set. As yet there is none. Individual teachers make use of a few, but uniformity is certainly desirable, and if we had a good system, more teachers would make use of this time-saving device. To start the ball a-rolling let us quote those which Price[1] suggests:

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[1] A good working rule for the amount of achievement in writing is: The class should be able to write correctly all matter which they can speak correctly.

> Let a circle over a verb represent (better, indicate) an error in word-order, three exclamation points represent a wrong auxiliary, a double underline the wrong ending, a stroke through the word incorrect spelling, and a single underline beneath the mark an error in punctuation.

Deihl[2] has reported on a method of correcting compositions, consisting of having the work which was done at home rewritten during the class period. During this time pupils had the privilege of asking the teacher for help. When a student had finished copying, he came to the teacher for the corrections, whereupon he was told to go on working on a new assignment. In this way the teacher was able to do most of the necessary correcting during the class period.

Other teachers prefer to have a good deal of the writing done at the board, or at least one copy of the work done, and corrected, at the board, while the remainder of the class are required to do the correcting in their seats, either each in his own, or in another's, notebook. This plan of making corrections has been discussed under the subject of dictation above.

The blackboard is an extremely valuable asset in the work of writing, especially for the hard-worked teacher. Have we been making full use of it? Take, for instance, the recitation on a reading lesson. Only one can speak at a time, but cannot writing of other portions of the text be going on simultaneously at the board?

A rather definite amount of writing, measured in minutes, if done in class (in lines, if done at home), should be done daily. It is difficult to keep account of the amounts in any other way. Merely saying fifty or a hundred pages of a composition book are to be done during the year will not do, although a good, direct-method composition book is certainly desirable in the second and later years. It will not do, either, to say that a whole hour is to be spent on writing once a week, and let it go at that. Writing must be done with greater variation, and in general, daily. It takes little time for the teacher to plan each lesson so as to have it include the necessary writing, whether the assignment is in grammar, reading, or speaking, based on charts, series, or other material.

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[1] Price, W. R., "Natural Methods of Teaching German Composition," *Monatshefte für Deutsche Sprache und Pädagogik,* 16 : 276.

[2] *Modern Language Journal,* 1 : 52–58.

Probably one of the most commonly used writing exercises for the advanced stage is answering the questions contained in the reading, or other, texts. This exercise is very easy to handle — as far as the assignment and development are concerned, the easiest. There are numerous pamphlets containing such questions based upon certain texts which are useful for this purpose, also. They generally contain questions in the foreign language concerning the contents of the text and English paraphrases on the text which are intended to be turned into the foreign language. Since they are based closely upon the idioms of the text, and the page upon which a set of questions or paraphrases is based is indicated in each case, they serve excellently to make mutations of the text. Some teachers use such helps to the exclusion of a regular composition book. It is best not to assign the English-into-the-foreign-language exercises until after the portion of text upon which they are based has been studied and recited on. This translating into the foreign tongue was severely condemned by the radical reformers and some still avoid all such work, but we cannot take this stand. However, our best thought on this in America is that only such paraphrases of texts should be translated into the foreign language, or material which has already been thoroughly studied, or matter which is accompanied by indication of all the idiomatic expressions to be used.

The old method of teaching composition — i.e., translating unrelated English sentences into the foreign language, often without any help as to the appropriate idioms, accompanied by the reciting of the rules governing certain phenomena — has been described by Koller[1] as follows:

> As typical of the first form (composition by translation), let me mention a visit I made to the high school of a large city in Ohio. It was intermediate German. Composition was "assigned" for that "recitation." Class opened at ten, lasted fifty minutes. At ten sharp, the stoic, immovable teacher and the well-behaving boys and girls in their respective places. Except for an occasional slight bending of the head, to allow the glance to travel from the reciting pupil to the open page of the book resting upon the desk, the teacher did not move; she remained sitting during the whole period. The teacher called Mary Jones's name. The latter stood up and read the first English sentence. The teacher: "Translate." Mary Jones did. Teacher: "What rule applies here?" Mary Jones: "Rule number 20." Teacher: "Recite that rule." Mary Jones did so. Teacher: "Correct." Then the next came and the next, each with one sentence as long as they lasted. Then a second beginning made. This performance was continued until the liberating bell rang. Such a lesson is indeed an "assignment." Its performance a "recitation." Teacher is here a misnomer — scientifically expressed, it should be a listener.

As opposed to this procedure, and showing the spirit of our new work, we may instance the work observed recently in Miss B's elementary class — second year — where an anecdote was first told and enjoyed, next dictated to the class, and finally corrected and the corrections entered by the students in their notebooks; or the work done in a third-year class when several persons were sent to the board to compose questions on the reading lesson of the day, since the book used contained no questions. The class copied these, after the necessary corrections had been made, and brought in the answers the next day, thus incidentally getting a review of the previous lesson.

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[1] *Monatshefte für Deutsche Sprache und Pädagogik*, 15: 54–59, 87–92.

Another excellent exercise is to have the class write an anecdote or sketch, from a skeleton supplied by the teacher. The teacher may easily make such a skeleton of an anecdote, or story, which is unknown to the class. This is better than to invent such skeletons, as O'Grady[1] suggests, and it has the advantage that the feeling for style can be better nurtured by it when finally the original of the skeleton is handed, or read, to the class for comparison.

Letter-writing, too, can be made more real by modern methods. Not translating letters as formerly, but reading good examples of letters and later composing real letters, is the best way for us. The international correspondence between school children may be utilized here. It is not difficult to arrange for a number of such correspondents in Spain, France, and Germany, and not only the few students who are receiving the letters will profit by it. The foreign letters should be read to the entire class, and the class may even be asked to write a letter in reply. This work is proving very stimulating in numerous schools. The subjoined references will enable the teacher to institute this work in his classes.[2]

Real letters to friends and relatives, I mean such as will actually be sent, will prove far more stimulating than fictitious letters. To prepare for writing such real letters, the class may be asked to write letters to the teacher. Here it is best to instruct the class carefully what form of address and signature to use and what ideas to incorporate in the letter. The length also should be prescribed. Ideas appropriate in letters to the teacher may be suggested as follows: "How I spent my vacation, or holiday. Impressions of a festival, a fair, a social affair, a game, a book, a person, congratulations upon the teacher's birthday, etc." In assigning such a letter, the teacher will need to consider with the class carefully what is to be written. This symposium will determine the ideas to be expressed. The class will not know some words for ideas to be expressed. These the teacher will supply and the class will note them down. If poor terms are suggested, the teacher will improve them. Now with the forms, the ideas, and the vocabulary worked out, the class will be able to avoid gross errors, and correcting will be made much easier.

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[1] *Op. cit.*, page 84.

[2] Teachers interested should address the George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tennessee, for French and Spanish, and should see *Modern Language Journal*, 7 : 182 ff., for German. For a historical sketch of this work see Handschin, C. H., *The Teaching of Modern Languages in the United States;* also Oliver, "Suggestions and References for Modern Language Teachers," *University of Illinois Bulletin*, Vol. 14, No. 18, pages 84–85. On composition in Spanish, see *Modern Language Journal*, 7 : 17–25.

Writing synopses of texts, or portions of texts read, is an easier exercise and this will probably precede letter-writing, but from reproduction by means of very simple skeletons, already mentioned, on, there is a gradation of possible exercises which can be based upon texts read, which we may indicate here as: descriptions after skeletons, of pictorial illustrations contained in texts, descriptions of characters, motives of texts, and original compositions. These may be character sketches, sketches of landscape, bits of argumentation, or exposition, etc. Dialoguizing texts instead of writing them just as they are found in the book is also excellent and gives a new zest of interest. Many texts lend themselves to this readily.

In assigning the description of an illustration, the picture should be discussed with the class as to what it contains, and as to its significance. Preparatory to an assignment in describing a character, the main points should be discussed, —that is, the attributes given the character by the author, with page and line reference in each case; the attributes brought out by his actions, by neglect to act, by what others say, think, do about him, etc.

Discussing motives must, of course, be done very simply. For instance, motives of work, recreation, religion, art, democracy, monarchy, socialism, politics, civic life, philosophy, may be noted and described, and the predominance of one or more will serve to characterize the work.

Such exercises must be thoroughly developed in assigning them. They must be simple and *short*, for we must remember that no two will be alike, and the teacher will need to correct each one in, or outside of, the class. Because of the unusual outlay of energy on the part of the teacher especially, they cannot be undertaken except at intervals, and the exercises mentioned in the foregoing three paragraphs must be reserved for the highest class.

Only in some such way can the feeling for style, for which we should strive in the highest class, be nurtured. Of course, we know that we cannot get our students to employ anything which might properly be called *style*. Indeed, even free composition of ordinary excellence is beyond our facilities. And this is not a confession of weakness or lack of solid work. If the French *lycée* and the German *Gymnasium* cannot achieve this in their longer course, and under decidedly more favorable conditions, we cannot be upbraided for failing in it.

However, it is an ideal toward which we strive. We attain it more or less imperfectly, and at all events we can succeed in giving the highest class *an appreciation of style.*

THE NATURE OF THE TEXTS

It is evident that much of the work in writing will be based on the grammar and reading texts. An important question arises as to whether a regular composition book shall be used, or the work based on reading texts which contain bulky composition exercises.

The old-style composition book which consisted of English texts to be translated into the foreign language, with at best the principal idioms indicated in footnotes, and all directions in English, has deservedly fallen into disrepute. To take its place in our direct-method practice, exercises in composition and grammar drill were introduced into literary texts. These proved eminently useful, but some teachers assert that it spoils the literature, and reduces all the work of the course to the dead level of drill.

The recent appearance in this country of a number of direct-method composition books, for each of the three languages concerned, makes it possible to avoid basing the composition work on literary texts. The best of these newer composition books contain, besides, texts in the foreign language, directions for various kinds of drills, mutations, etc., as these have been described in the foregoing pages. Another valuable feature embodied in some, and desirable in all, is studies in vocabulary; i.e., in synonyms, antonyms, and related groups.

HANDY LIST OF TEACHING DEVICES

1. Have matter copied verbatim.
2. Have matter copied with verb mutation, which will include only pronouns at first.
3. Have matter copied with verb mutation, but changing tense and number.
4. Have matter copied, substituting pronouns for nouns, and *vice versa.*
5. Have matter copied, supplying adjectives for every noun which has none accompanying it.
6. Have matter copied, changing sentence order to interrogative, negative, etc.
7. Have matter copied, basing a relative clause in the nominative, or other cases, on 10 nouns, etc.

8. Dictate a passage. Have it corrected.

9. Correct orally, with the help of one copy on the blackboard, the written answers to questions dictated, or found in the book.

10. Assign a letter to be written to yourself. Give form of address and main thought-content, and discuss thoroughly the vocabulary to be used.

11. Have international correspondence letters read. Sketch out an answer to the same with aid of the whole class.

12. Discuss in detail the thought-content and the vocabulary of a theme on which the class is to write. Have individual students read such themes after written. Pick out the typical errors only, for correcting in class.

13. Send a student to the board to write an explanation of his yesterday's absence; to explain why he has not prepared his assignment.

Problems

Before reading this chapter, write out a list of devices which may be used: (*a*) in oral; (*b*) in written composition. Write out the exact procedures, also, in each case, and hand your work to the teacher for criticism and amplification.

How would it do to have a class, which is using series, recite by rewriting the series from memory, and, in more advanced stages, compose original series at the board, each student in turn adding a sentence to be written by all?

How would you correct this work at the board?

Make a graded list of the best three books for teaching French, German, or Spanish oral composition, and the best three books for teaching written composition, and give reasons for ranking them as you do.

NOTE. For this purpose there must be made accessible a good library of such books.

CHAPTER NINE

GRAMMAR

THERE has been a great deal of deprecation of grammatical study for several decades. It came in as a revulsion against the almost exclusively philological method of studying foreign languages, with its undue stress upon the minutiæ of grammar and its almost complete lack of any practical achievement. We are still in the sign of this radical reaction, although evidently now passing out of it. It is therefore well at this point to state briefly the uses of grammar, especially for our American students.

In the first place we must recognize that language study may be made very loose and inaccurate, because of the many shadings in language, and because so much depends upon one's conception of style, on æsthetic standards, which are quite subjective. Then, too, even in elementary work, with a little leniency on the part of the teacher, much may pass which is "not altogether bad," "quite fair," "not impossible," or "not quite idiomatic," and which may be achieved by a glib tongue and a facile memory without any serious study whatever. Such glibness with a very limited range of forms is, however, not the proper foundation for serious achievement.

However much we advocate learning grammar inductively, and for use, we know just as emphatically that finally the student must have a systematic knowledge of grammar. He cannot remember the multitudinous facts except in groupings, governed by principles. These latter must therefore be learned just as thoroughly as the individual facts. Indeed, the student is just as helpless if he does not know the laws (rules), although he knows many concrete instances, as the students of the old school who knew the rules but scarcely any concrete instances. With all of our advocacy of direct method in grammar, then, we recognize fully that finally the rules must be securely grasped and retained, though on the basis of acquired linguistic habits, not on that of pure memory work. Induction is, for adolescents certainly, the best mode of approach, but we know that the final goal of all schooling is the power of abstract thought, and in language work, the best instrument for training in abstract thinking is grammar.

And then there is another consideration. Our own language, being quite uninflected, comes easy to the child; he bothers little about it. Consequently he never learns its grammar and unless he takes a course in Latin or a modern language, his knowledge of grammar remains embryonic. But in learning another language he must perforce learn to name the various functions of words and phrases, and to think about language objectively, a thing which he has never been obliged to do in regard to his native tongue.

This is important. Teachers have hardly yet recognized the importance of linguistic training in our schools, not to speak of the laity, who never become conscious of any difficulty in language. And here I wish to raise a point in educational psychology which has been uniformly overlooked or slighted. It is this. When once we get students to think about the speech they utter, we have in that thinking a cultural and disciplinary instrument of the very first order. Indeed, is there any superior to it? Pupils use their mathematical thinking in the mathematics room, the science thinking in the science room. With language thinking the matter lies quite differently. This material, and the necessity for this form of thinking, is always with them. They are practicing almost continually aloud, or silently, during all their waking hours, and every effort put forth to speak a work or phrase correctly is a paving stone for intellectual discipline and moral and polite culture.

Grammatical study aids in inducing this attitude toward language. In grammatical study we (1) study the relations of words, (2) make such relations in self-expression, (3) generalize the principles, or memorize the generalized principles. Can any of these points be omitted in serious and practical study? They certainly cannot.

In grammar we have a science which has been thoroughly worked out and perfected during a thousand years. It is, in language work, our best instrument for exact and scientific training. Should we disregard it? However, we must add that our view of grammar work is entirely the modern one: no grammar but what is immediately needed, and no grammar except for its use-value!

Here we find ourselves at once opposed to the style of grammar study exclusively in vogue before 1880. That plan was to assign — rarely to develop — a lesson consisting of a list of new words contained in the lesson, the rules covering the particular phenomena in hand, and two sets of sentences for translation into and from the foreign language. It was customary to use no other book than the grammar before this was finished, or nearly so. As a result grammatical study became monotonous, and the grammar was not well learned either, since interest was lacking and since there were not enough application and practical work, not to mention that living language for oral use cannot be acquired in this way at all.

Not too much grammar was taught, but it was taught too poorly, as M. Brunot says.

All protests against this kind of work, and they were numerous, availed little before the last decades of the nineteenth century, when under the influence of a greater realism and utilitarianism there went up a great protest in favor of a more efficient — that is, a more direct — method.

A method of this kind, called the natural method, was introduced in the United States by Heness and Sauveur, but failed of adoption by the school men on account of its lack of system in teaching grammar. According to this method, pupils were to learn the foreign language as they learned their mother tongue; that is, chiefly through oral practice. The method proved faulty, however, in its theory that adolescents and adults learn a foreign language as children do their mother tongue. It has been shown that great care must be taken if adolescents are to get words directly and that much drill is necessary before they can use them with spontaneity. This systematic drill in speaking, reading, and writing, the natural method did not provide. Moreover, it paid little attention to grammar on the ground that children pay but little attention to it and finally acquire the usage prevalent among persons with whom they associate. The natural method is best exemplified in the books named below.[1]

But today we know that the practice afforded in the classroom is not sufficient to impress good usage upon the learner, unless the amount to be learned is strictly limited and thoroughly drilled in well-planned exercises.

A sort of ready but inaccurate knowledge of elementary speaking and reading is, indeed, attainable by this conversational method. It is illustrated at its best by some of our commercial schools of languages.

Our regular schools have not taken it up, for various reasons. Moreover, it has been very properly pointed out that the aims in our schools are not entirely practical, but disciplinary and cultural as well, and our aim is, not the education of clerks to read stock quotations and write a strictly commercial letter, but the liberal education of young people along the lines laid down in this book.

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[1] Heness, G., *Der Leitfaden für den Unterricht in der deutschen Sprache;* Sauveur, L., *Causeries avec mes élèves;* Sauveur, L., *Petites Causeries;* Heness, G., *Der Sprachlehrer unter seinen Schülern;* Sauveur, L., *Introduction to the Teaching of Living Languages* (all published by Henry Holt & Co., New York); Kroeh, C., "The Natural Method" in *Methods of Teaching Modern Languages,* pages 153–163 (D. C. Heath & Co., Boston; 1896).

In the eighties, the school men of Germany took up the reform, after Gouin had already blazed the way with his series system and had given a great impetus toward a direct method.

The reason for this movement was the growing demand for more practical use of languages because of increased trade relations of European nations, and on the pedagogical side, because of the greater insight into the importance of interest and into the processes involved in learning languages.

Since more practical work was desired, grammar-work had to be restricted. Thus arose the cry: Away with grammar! But after some trial of this program, it was shown to be unwise, and grammar now became not the "queen," but the "handmaiden," in modern-language study.

A small school also demanded that grammar be taught entirely inductively; that is, the learner was to enter in his notebook the various forms of the definite article, noun, etc., until he had completed the paradigm, whereupon he was to deduce the rule. This proved impracticable. (Cf. Chapter II.)

Incidentally it should be remarked here that the terms *inductive* and *direct* have often been confused in our American writings on this subject. Inductive study involves starting from the concrete instances and discovering the rule, while direct teaching of grammar may be inductive or deductive, *but is done by means of the foreign language*, not by means of the native speech.

Today our aim in grammatical study is to train the pupil to learn and to do all that is necessary in order to understand, speak, read, and write the foreign language, with all that this involves. We shall now proceed to show how this may be accomplished most efficiently.

The beginner's book, or grammar, it is here presumed, contains: (1) connected discourse, for use as texts; (2) lists of questions in the foreign language on these; (3) directions for drill work based on the text. If it contains English paraphrases for translation into the foreign language, these may be omitted, or done later when the class is able to do them without injuring the growing feeling for the language; and even then they should be done extemporaneously in class before they are assigned for written work.

The first point is that in direct method we need to go slowly, to develop each lesson carefully, and to drill it before assigning it, and in recitation to drill, drill, drill until even the poorest students have some mastery of it and the better ones have assimilated it from every point of view.

Even some of our direct-method books progress far too rapidly. In the directions for teaching a certain beginners' book for German which are supplied with the book by the publishers, we find in the first lesson, besides the present and future tense forms, the interrogative adjective and pronoun; in the second lesson we find the strong and weak endings of adjectives in the positive, comparative, and superlative; in the third lesson we find preterite forms of the verb, and in the fifth a subjunctive form. That this is piling up difficulties is patent. Instead, the lessons for the first week or two should contain none but present tense forms, only predicative adjectives, and a very limited number of verbs and nouns.

Let us set down here a reasonable program for a class using one of our direct-method books.

First day. Development of the reading text by oral rendition aided by gestures and pointing to illustrations or objects. This will suffice for interpreting the meaning of: *C'est le papier. Voilà la chaise. Elle est rouge, blanche. Asseyez-vous. Regardez le plafond*, or *Das ist der Tisch. Die Tafel ist schwarz. Die Kreide ist weisz. La puerta es grande. La ventana es grande.*

With the aid of the objects of the classroom one can make conversation for weeks, and many of our beginners' books [1] now contain such lessons. However, as soon as texts deal with things not present, or actions which cannot be performed in the classroom, the interpretation becomes more difficult. If the text is based on a picture or a chart, it makes it easier for the teacher.

There are other ways of conveying meanings; for instance, to interpret, *Une petite poule voulait quitter la cour pour aller voir la forêt,* it will be necessary to interpret *petite* by pointing and saying, *Henri est grand, mais Elisabeth est petite. Poule* and *voulait* are given by their English equivalents, *hen* and *wished,* but *quitter* by going out of the door and saying: *Je quitte la classe. Que fais-je? Vous quittez la classe. Oui, je quitte la classe pour aller voir le corridor. C'est le corridor là-bas. Aller c'est* "to go." *Je vois le tableau, je vois le livre, je vois le corridor. Je quitte la classe pour voir le corridor* (gesturing). *Est-ce que vous comprenez* "*pour voir*"*? Oui, voir c'est* "to see."

Now review: *Qui voulait quitter la petite cour? La petite poule voulait quitter la petite cour. Pourquoi voulait-elle quitter la petite cour? Elle voulait aller voir la forêt. Est-ce que vous comprenez le mot* "*forêt*"*? Non, je ne comprends pas. La forêt c'est* "the forest." *Pourquoi voulait-elle quitter la petite cour? Elle voulait quitter la petite cour pour aller voir la forêt.*

Similarly to interpret, *Der Winter ist die kalte Zeit des Jahres,* we should proceed as follows: *Verstehen Sie* "*Winter*"*? Jawohl, der Winter heiszt* "winter." Or if it is not understood, then we say, *Jetzt haben wir Winter,* or *Jetzt ist es Winter,* or *Jetzt ist's Herbst, dann kommt der Winter,* etc., or *Es ist Winter von Dezember bis März. Der Winter ist die kalte Zeit. Kalt heiszt? Das Eis ist kalt. Das Feuer ist heisz,* etc. *Was heiszt Zeit? Zeit heiszt?* No answer. Taking out his watch and looking at it, *Es ist zehn Uhr. Welche Zeit ist es? Es ist zehn Uhr. Der Winter ist die kalte Zeit des Jahres. Was heiszt Jahr?* No answer. *Der Herbst, der Winter, der Frühling, und der Sommer bilden das Jahr* nineteen hundred and twenty-four. *Was ist der Winter?* Answer: *Der Winter ist die kalte Zeit des Jahres.*

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[1] E.g., Kirkman, F. B., *La première année de Français* (London; 1916).

Indeed, one can avoid English words even more completely if desirable. Later on in the course, when a considerable vocabulary has been learned in this way, synonyms should be used to interpret words, just as cognates were used from the start for this purpose. Thus the text, *Die Sonne scheint. Der Himmel ist blau. Das Wasser strömt im Regen auf die Erde*, may be interpreted by calling for the English cognates, which, after the idea of the cognate, or related, English and German words has been explained, will be readily given, as: The, sun, shines. The, heaven, is, blue. The, water, streams, in, rain, upon, the, earth.

Antonyms also may be utilized in the same way; for example, *court* is a new word, but the class knows *long*. Then we can interpret: *Court c'est le contraire de long*, or *Riche c'est le contraire de pauvre. Vieux est le contraire de jeune*, etc.

After the lesson has been worked through in this way, books are opened and the assignment for the next day given, something like this: The lesson is to be reread aloud several times. (We are presuming that pronunciation has been sufficiently established before this.)

If words have been forgotten, they must be looked up in the vocabulary. Next, the questions upon the text are to be read. Most of them have already been used in interpreting the piece. We may read them and answer them now. The class does so, with aid from the teacher if necessary. Finally the questions are reread and the answers given orally several times in preparation for the next recitation.

Second day. The recitation consists of asking and answering the questions on the text, students doing both asking and answering. If necessary, those asking the questions read them from the book. Next, the text is read aloud by members of the class, and by the whole class.

Assignment: More practice in reading, questions, and formulating answers on the same text until answers can be given correctly without reference to the text. Next, the answers are to be written in a notebook.

Third day. Review of question and answer work on the text. Correcting of the written sentences which have been written on the board by one or more individuals, all making the corrections in their notebooks. Next, retelling of the text correctly with the aid of the teacher's gestures. Next, drill on grammatical forms in phrases. For instance, the present of certain verbs, or whatever phenomenon is being especially stressed in this particular lesson. For example, if the text contains *quitter*, we may conjugate: *Je quitte la classe, tu quittes la classe, il quitte la classe*, etc.

When the class has acquired enough instances, and a rule has been developed, this should now be assigned for memorizing along with the paradigm, or conjugation, it covers.

This will conclude the work on this one lesson in the grammar. It will be seen that thus we spend three days on a lesson instead of one. Some prefer to spend even a greater number of days upon it.

In regard to telling a story, anecdote, or text, connectedly, a caution must be given. It should be practically a volunteer task, since conscientious students with poor memories will often spend too much time upon it, if it is required. If the text has been worked through as indicated above, the sequence will have become sufficiently fixed in mind to be reproduced without great effort, if the teacher aids, as by gesture or suggestion.

If the teacher prefers to develop the grammar by means of oral work entirely, a couple of bright students placed at the side board can write down the forms as soon as they are used. Thus the entire paradigm will be ready for visual inspection as soon as the forms have all been used. This is, for our conditions, more advisable than the European plan of having the student enter the forms in his notebook as he meets them in his reading.[1]

A couple of examples to show how the teacher may work out such paradigms and the rules covering their functions may be given here. Suppose the relative pronoun is to be developed.

Some teachers have an idea that no English should be used in teaching the foreign grammar. This is quite possible, of course. But if a teacher wishes to do this, he should also use a textbook written exclusively in the foreign language. However, we are not advocating this plan here. The teacher is advised to use the foreign language in giving directions for drills, but in developing new theory in advanced stages of grammatical study he will do well to use English whenever necessary to save time. I am aware here that I shall receive the criticism of some few fellow progressives who wish to have *no* word of the mother tongue used. I cannot agree with them, for two reasons: principally because it wastes too much time, and secondly, because analysis, the first step in teaching, calls for drawing out of the student whatever he knows which bears on the problem in hand. We need to start from the student's knowledge of English grammar in every case, and this he is unable to express in the foreign language. Besides, we need numerous examples to illustrate the point in English grammar. These surely must be spoken in English, direct method or no direct method.

In developing the relative pronoun, students will be asked to give examples of it in English sentences. The teacher now forms a few relative sentences, basing them upon a pictorial chart, if one is available, or speaking about members of the class. For instance, basing on Hölzel's picture "*Der Sommer,*" we may say: *Der Mann, der die Sense wetzt, ist ein Arbeiter. Der Mann, dessen Sense stumpf ist, wetzt sie. Der Mann, dem das Feld gehört, heiszt der Bauer. Der Mann, den du auf dem Wege kommen siehst, ist ein Spaziergänger,* etc. *Die Frau, die die Mutter des Säuglings ist, arbeitet schwer. Die Frau, deren Kind unter dem Busch liegt, ist eine Bauernfrau,* etc. Or, *Jean est le garçon qui savait tous les mots. Jean connaît tous les mots que nous avons lus,* etc., until all the case forms of all genders and both numbers have been used.

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[1] Cf., e.g., Walter, M., *Französischer Unterricht auf der Unterstufe;* Schweitzer, Charles, *Méthode de l'Enseignement des Langues Vivantes* (Paris; 1903).

For purposes of drill it is best for the instructor to give the material out of which the pupil is to construct the principal and the subordinate clause. E.g., *Ich sehe den Mann. Er hat dich gestern gegrüszt.* The pupil construes as follows: *Ich sehe den Mann, der dich gestern gegrüszt hat.* Or again: *Ich habe das Messer gefunden. Du hast es gestern verloren,* and the pupil continues: *Ich habe das Messer gefunden, das (welches) du gestern verloren hast.* In this way all cases, genders, and both numbers of the relatives can be interestingly drilled. Please note that the order of the words is also drilled by this device.

In French and Spanish the same procedure can be utilized. E.g., *Jean est le garçon. Il a perdu sa balle. Jean est le garçon qui a perdu sa balle. Voilà la dame. Sa maison a été brûlée. Voilà la dame, dont la maison a été brûlé. C'est l'homme. Vous lui avez parlé. C'est l'homme à qui vous avez parlé.* Thus by appropriate changes in the material, all forms of the relative may be called for.

Exercises for drilling forms of various parts of speech are given here for use in direct-method work. Nouns with the proper article may be run through the various cases and both numbers, preferably in sentences. *Le roi, du roi, au roi, le*

roi, *les rois*, *des rois*, *aux rois*; *la reine*, *de la reine*, *à la reine*, *la reine*, *les reines*, *des reines*, *aux reines*, *les reines*, etc.

Have the proper demonstrative adjectives prefixed to the nouns found in the vocabulary accompanying the lesson, which are, e.g., *le bras*, *la chatte*, *le détail*, *la chambre*, *le loup*, *la dame*, *la rue*, thus: *ce bras*, *cette chatte*, etc., or run these forms through the several cases and both numbers in sentences.

Again, read a list of nouns, prefixing to each a possessive adjective, rotating them, first person singular, and plural, second person singular, and plural, third person singular, and plural, all genders, thus: *mon bras*, *mes bras*, *ta chatte*, *tes chattes*, *son détail*, *ses détails*, *sa chambre*, *ses chambres*, *notre loup*, *nos loups*, *votre dame*, *vos dames*, *leur rue*, *leurs rues*, etc. Similarly demonstrative forms with possessives, *ce livre-ci c'est le mien*, *ce livre-là c'est le tien*, *cette plume-ci c'est la mienne*, *cette plume-là c'est la tienne*, etc., through the various persons, genders, and numbers.

Adjectives may be supplied for the nouns of the text, to drill the endings in German, and to drill both endings and position, in French, e.g., *le bras droit*, *la grande chatte*, *le petit détail*, varying the ending to suit case, number, and gender of the word in the text. In German, with more diversified adjective endings, this drill is especially important. Drilling by rotating the possessive adjectives is also recommended for German. Thus with these words in the list, *Arm*, *Mutter*, *Kind*, *Vater*, *Haus*, *Katze*, we may drill *mein guter Arm*, *deine gute Mutter*, *sein gutes Kind*, *unser alter Vater*, *euer gutes Haus*, *ihre gute Katze*. These are all taken to be nominative. They may be read in any other case equally well. This makes a livelier drill than merely declining a paradigm.

Verbs can be drilled similarly by giving the first form met in the text in the first person, singular, and the following forms in the second, third, singular, and the first, second, and third, plural in turn. Or, again, to introduce all the tenses, each succeeding form can be given in another tense; e.g., *Ich gehe, du sagtest, er, sie, es hat gesungen, wir hatten gegessen, ihr werdet gehen, sie werden gegangen sein.* The subjunctive may be drilled in the same way. Allowing each person to give only one form, at times, makes a snappy exercise.[1]

Among the useful exercises for drill must be mentioned flash cards. These are small pieces of cardboard on each of which is written, or printed, a phrase, or sentence, in which the form which is to be drilled has been omitted, after the manner of the blank-space exercise; e.g., to drill adjectives, in German: *Der* —— *Baum, die* —— *Katze, die* —— *Frau.* Or to drill relatives: *Der Mann,* —— *kam, die Frau,* —— *Kind es ist, das Mädchen,* —— *ich es gab.* Or to drill demonstrative adjectives in French: *Qui est* —— *homme?* —— *arbres sont jolis.* Or to drill interrogative pronouns: —— *singt?* —— *dankt er?* —— *Kind ist es?* —— *chante?* —— *avez-vous? De* —— *parlez-vous?* Or in Spanish: *¿* —— *habla V.? ¿* —— *quiere V.? ¿* —— *es?*

This blank-space exercise is extremely profitable and has been used in a few grammars. However, there is not space to print sufficient of these exercises in such books, and it is laborious for the teacher to furnish them in mimeographed copies. The flash cards, however, can be used over and over, year after year. They also have the advantage of keeping the whole class keyed up. Some publisher should bring out well-planned sets of flash cards for French, German, and Spanish.

In such sets, drills on all the parts of speech and many forms should be provided. The drill should, in elementary classes, be on one point only at a time. For the present there are no cards of this kind published, and teachers will need to write their own cards or have them printed. Having the phrase printed on both sides of the card is best.

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[1] For a useful device for teaching verb forms in Spanish see *Modern Language Journal,* 5: 317–319; also, *ibid.,* 6: 95–99.

The work in arithmetic makes a very fine subject for oral work in elementary classes. A good gradation is: counting by cardinals and ordinals, reciting the multiplication table, doing problems in addition, subtraction, division, etc.

Telling the time of day is another good drill for forms. It can be arranged by displaying a cardboard clock-face with movable hands. In this connection, the names of the parts of the day, and the larger divisions of time — days of week, months, seasons — can also be drilled, as well as the greetings used at different times of the day, upon saying farewell, etc.

Making mutations in texts is one of the best drill exercises. These must, of course, be well planned in advance; first, in order to see to what exercise the text best lends itself, and then to see that the exercise which is selected can really be carried through without encountering too great difficulties for the capacity of the class. Some directions for such exercises are: *Donnez au paragraphe la forme interrogative. Mettez tous les noms au pluriel. Mettez tous les verbes de ce paragraphe au passé défini. Remplacez les noms par des pronoms. Setzen Sie für Gegenwart, Vergangenheit der Verben*, etc. *Lesen Sie diesen Paragraphen in der Frageform, in der Negativform, oder Negativ-, in der Frage- und in der Aussageform, im Imperativ, im Imperativ, verneinend*, etc.

Drills for especially hard points of grammar may be dictated or mimeographed; e.g., *Remplacez les noms des phrases suivantes par* **en** *ou* **y** *selon le cas. Êtes-vous allé chez vous? Avez-vous jamais été en Amérique? Va-t-elle à la maison? Veut-il boire du lait? A-t-il acheté du fromage?* or, to drill the order of pronouns: *Remplacez les noms par des pronoms. Je donne une rose à la dame. Elle donne ses livres à sa mère. Il envoie ses choses à ses amis.*

Or, to drill the order of pronouns in German: *Setzen Sie* *anstatt der Substantiv, Pronomina: Er gab dem Manne das Buch. Wir nahmen den Kindern die Last ab. Sie dankte dem Manne ihr Leben*, etc.

To drill adverbial compounds of *da* plus the preposition: *Setzen Sie die adverbiellen Pronomina, da plus Präposition, anstatt der Präpositionen und Substantive. Er machte mit dem Buch, was er wollte. Z. B. Er machte damit, was er wollte. Es lag auf (über, unter, in, vor, hinter, neben) dem Tisch. Setzen Sie in folgenden Sätzen die adverbiellen Pronomina wo plus Präposition anstatt der Substantive in Fragesätzen. Er legte es vor (hinter, neben, in, über, unter) den Wagen. Z. B. Wovor legte er es?*

SECOND-YEAR GRAMMAR

The transition from the first to the second year should be made carefully. A good way is to review, during the opening weeks, the grammar done during the first year, using many of the same drills again, only more concentrated. This will give the new students a chance to get on their feet.

A break in the text, or method, at this time is disadvantageous. Inexperienced teachers must also be warned against making such a review of the grammar during the opening weeks and then relegating it altogether for the remainder of the year, as is sometimes done.

When now the review has been completed, the work should be taken up where it was left off the preceding year — e.g., at the modal auxiliaries, or the subjunctive mode — and continued. Drill in reflexive verbs is excellent for drilling the reflexive pronouns. It can be combined also with drill in possessives by sentences like this: *Je prends mon livre et m'assieds sur ma chaise. Tu prends ton livre et t'assieds sur ta chaise. Il prend son livre et s'assied sur sa chaise*, etc. The agreement of the past participle with the noun can be practiced: *Nous sommes (elle est, elles sont, ils sont*, etc.) *entrés dans* *la gare*, etc. *Nommez-moi les dames* (*hommes, l'homme, la dame*, etc.) *que vous avez vues.*

The missing-word exercise for the subjunctive in both German and French is excellent: *Il faut que vous* (*avoir*) *bien travaillé. Que croyez-vous que ce* (*être*)*? Il vaudrait mieux que nous le* (*faire*). *Er sagte das er krank* (*sein*). *Sie glaubte sie* (*singular, feminine*) (*werden*) *kommen. Ich* (*haben*) *kommen können, wenn ich es gewuszt* (*haben*). *No creo que él* (*estar*) *aqui. Es preciso que él* (*venir*).

For more lively drill in verbs we may run a verb through, not only the various tenses, but in each succeeding tense put it in another mode: indicative, subjunctive, imperative (and in negative, affirmative, interrogative) in sentences.

Especially the verbs which take a special case in German, or one followed by a certain preposition in French, need to be drilled in this way; e.g., *Ich danke ihm, ich gedenke seiner, je pense à elle*, etc.

Prepositions need continued drill. It can be given quickly by the teacher's holding an object in various positions, — e.g., *über, unter, vor, hinter, in, neben, auf dem Tisch;* or with accusative prepositions: bringing it up to these positions and having the class speak the necessary phrases. If finally the lists are to be memorized, the old well-known rhymes are useful for German.

Schreibe:

Über, unter, vor, und zwischen,
An, auf, hinter, neben, in
Mit dem Dativ auf die Frage "wo?"
Mit dem Akkusativ auf die Frage "wohin?"

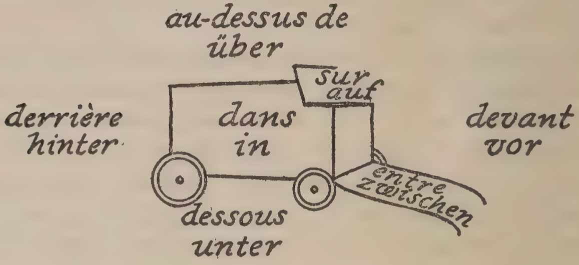
Schreibe:

Durch, für, ohne, um, gegen, wider,
Stets mit dem Akkusativ nieder.

Schreibe:

Mit, nach, nächst, nebst, samt, bei, seit,
Von, zu, zuwider, entgegen, auszer, aus,
Stets mit dem Dativ nieder.

Some teachers use diagrams to drill prepositions, one of which is herewith reproduced.



However, our device lends itself to demonstration of prepositions used after verbs of motion, which such diagrams do not. In some cases the teacher may prefer to walk about and assume certain positions in preference to using an object as above. By using persons instead of the desk as an object, the pronouns may be drilled simultaneously; e.g., *près d'elle, après lui, bei ihr, neben uns, gegen ihm.*

Punctuation receives some attention during the first year and more during the second. This is best done in the dictation exercises (see Chapter VIII), but must be insisted on in the written work in grammar also. Some teachers use an occasional passage which contains faulty punctuation to try out the class. The value of this is open to question.

German modals present difficulties. Such questions as: *Darf er gehen? Soll er sprechen? Mögen Sie gehen? Können Sie aufsagen? Wollen Sie so gut sein? Müssen Sie schon aufhören?* will elicit useful answers, especially if the answer is to contain two models, e.g., *Ja, er soll sprechen, aber er kann nicht. Ja, ich mag gehen, aber ich soll nicht.* The blank-space exercise is also advisable here, using two appropriate modals as above, e.g., *Der Mann* (*kann*) (*will*) *das Pferd kaufen, aber er* (*soll*) (*mag*) *nicht*, etc. At times the infinitive form merely may be printed or a blank space left and the student asked to fill in the proper verb.

A more advanced grammar text is advisable for the third and fourth years. This gives, also, an element of newness. The review should be taken at the beginning of each year. Our work must be concentric. The work of each succeeding year must include that of all the years preceding it, and must go beyond it. And we must continue the live oral drill according to a carefully prepared program.

Additional grammatical exercises suited to this advanced stage are: changing sentences into others of approximately the same meaning but different form; e.g., "I see him coming. I see that he is coming." This sentence mutation has been used with much success and serves as an excellent review of word order and the modes.[1]

Completing sentences by supplying the subordinate clauses: *Il m'est impossible* —— ? *Pourquoi n'avez-vous* —— ? *Je l'aurai* —— . Or the teacher gives the subordinate, and the student supplies the principal clause: —— *parce que la porte est ouverte.* —— *il n'est pas venu.* —— *qui j'ai vu hier. Ich glaubte dasz* —— . *Man behauptete dasz* —— . Or giving the subordinate clause: —— *wenn er kommen würde.* —— *falls er käme.* —— *dasz er es gewuszt hätte.*

That in grammar, as well as in oral work, there must be a gradual approach to the more idiomatic usage, ellipses, and syncopated forms is certain. In the elementary stage no ellipses or syncopations are used, and any one to the manner born will recognize at once that it is classroom speech. This must become less so in the course of the work. *Können in der Sprache* must take the place of *Wissen von der Sprache.*

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[1] Cf. also Thiergen, O., *Methodik des Neuphilologischen Unterrichts*, pages 96 ff. (1910).

A word about the nature of our grammars may not be amiss here. Unfortunately, we have far too many of them. That is a happy circumstance, some one will say, since all tastes can be satisfied. But there are greater disadvantages: (1) There is too little probability that the student will find the same book used in case he changes schools, teachers, or even sections. (2) There is little criticism of texts, since there are so many of them, with the consequence that not enough care is put upon writing them. (3) Teachers cannot keep track of all the grammars and hence have but a poor knowledge of what various students have learned.

If we had a dozen grammars instead of literally scores of them, criticism of them would be far more valuable than it is now. At present a grammar is reviewed once or twice. No one pays much attention to the appearance of a new grammar since there are so many. If there were only a few standard grammars, a new one would be reviewed carefully in half a dozen or more journals, its virtues and weaknesses would be discussed in teachers' meetings, and loose work would thus be thoroughly advertised. This would mean that our grammar writers would need to become specialists, and the emoluments would make it worth while for the author to drop all other forms of scholarly work and make the perfecting of his book his life work.

For the publisher this would mean that he would specialize in a few types of books, not publish all. We cannot understand why a house which has a good grammar, built on the direct method, should want to publish another so near like it as to be superfluous. I understand the answer is that instructors want new books, or that an instructor in a large school has written such a book, and the school authorities agree to use it for a certain period, if it is published.

These are both the poorest kind of reasons. The evil of changing texts frequently has already been noted in these pages. The second reason is no better. But publishers tell us that they are merely filling the demand, and the demand depends upon the teachers.

NOTE. Limper, "The Use of Outlines and Other Devices in the Teaching of French Grammar," *Modern Language Journal*, 5 : 102–106, gives useful devices for simplifying the teaching of pronouns, articles, and "if" clauses. A similar simplification for teaching the Spanish pronouns may be given as follows:

Position of Pronouns

1	2	3	Note No. 1 always comes before No. 2 and No. 3.
	me	*le*	And No. 2 always comes before No. 3.
	te	*lo*	
		la	
se	*nos*	*les*	
	os	*los*	
		las	

For devices for teaching French verbs, see Church, F. W., "Teaching the French Verb," *Modern Language Journal*, 5 : 249–255; and for teaching the French subjunctive, see Mann, A., Jr., "On Teaching the Subjunctive Mood in French," *Modern Language Journal*, 4 : 171–177; see also *ibid.*, 7 : 37–42; 6 : 264–270; 6 : 302–321.

For lists of French grammars most commonly used in colleges, see *Modern Language Journal*, 2 : 267.

HANDY LIST OF TEACHING DEVICES

1. Develop a lesson by use of synonyms, antonyms, and cognates as far as possible.
2. Have the exercise mutated, changing person (number, tense, or form of sentence). This will afford dozens of different exercises.
3. Hear declension of nouns, pronouns, etc., and conjugation of verbs in sentences.
4. Supply adjectives or other missing words in a prepared missing-word exercise.

5. Have the nouns of a text changed into the plural (if in the singular) and *vice versa*, changing the verbs, pronouns, etc., to suit.

6. Use flash cards for drilling all parts of speech.

7. Conjugate sentences involving change of possessive adjectives (and reflexives) in each case.

8. Use prepositions in phrases as teacher illustrates the position of an object before, behind, on, under, beside, near, etc., another.

9. Change a sentence into another of exactly or approximately the same meaning but varying in form. Get as many forms as possible.

10. Have one student give a principal clause, another student to supply a proper subordinate clause. In the course of time be sure to get relative clauses with the relative pronoun in all possible cases, numbers, and genders, also adjective clauses of many kinds, and adverbial clauses of manner, degree, place, time, and purpose.

11. Use the progressive synopsis; i.e., give present in first singular, preterite in the second singular, the past definite (perfect) in the third singular, and so on, using the three forms of the plural successively in the remaining tenses.

12. Use missing-word exercises to drill subjunctive forms, or have a passage which is in the indicative put into the subjunctive.

Problems

What is meant by preliminary focalization of attention? Is it necessary before taking up a drill or a review exercise; or not? Why? or why not?

If you agree that a more advanced grammar should be taken up in the third year (of a four-year high-school or college course), then select the French (German, Spanish) grammar which you would use for this purpose. Select also your elementary grammar; and list your reasons in each case.

With the elementary and the advanced grammar selected, write out a list of types of exercises which you would use, in proper progression, during the four years, giving the proper references to the grammars selected.

Note. It goes without saying that if the elementary grammar is built on the direct method the advanced one should follow the same lines.

CHAPTER TEN

REALIA

IL est bon de savoir quelque chose des mœurs de divers peuples, afin de juger des nôtres plus sainement, et que nous ne pensions pas que tout ce qui est contre nos modes soit ridicule et contre raison, ainsi qu'ont coutume de faire ceux qui n'ont rien vu.[1]

The best exponents of the direct method compel their students to act as much as possible like English, or German, or Italian, or Spanish boys through the whole of the hour.

In order still further to carry out this illusion, many of the modern-language teachers, especially the French, have fairly covered the walls of their classrooms with maps of England, plans of London, posters, and notices of various kinds, all in the foreign language. Billboard advertisements of plays (one that I saw must have covered at least forty square feet), military displays, county fairs, bicycles, and automobile accessories, were frequent. "Cyclists and motorists — speed not to exceed five miles an hour," "Time is money," and other similar signs were on the walls of one classroom. Sometimes these formed a mere heterogeneous collection, but at others the selection and arrangement displayed considerable taste on the part of the teacher. Photographs of London landmarks and scenes typical of English life, together with well-chosen sets of picture postal cards, gave evidence that the trips to England, which many of these teachers make regularly, had had some other aim than mere pleasure-seeking.[2]

Demnach müszten, da man doch wohl unter keinen Umständen auf die Klassikerlektüre wird verzichten wollen, die nötigen Realien in sorgfältigster Auswahl dem Übungsbuche zugewiesen und gelegentlich durch Diktate und Konversationsübungen ergänzt werden.[3]

But, in practice, it is certain that unless the information in question were given in the hours allotted to the foreign language, it would find no place at all in the curriculum outside the limited

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[1] Descartes, *Discours de la Méthode.*

[2] Farrington, F. E., *French Secondary Schools*, page 227.

[3] Breymann, H., *Neusprachliche Reform-Literatur* (Drittes Heft), page 125 (Leipzig; 1905).

> amount that could be assigned to it in the lessons on history. We are justified, therefore, in regarding it as one of the functions of foreign-language instruction to give some account of the foreign nation, more particularly of those of its activities which would not otherwise receive adequate attention: its institutions, customs, arts.[1]

> Es ist wünschenswert, dasz dem neusprachlichen Unterricht, neben der Lektüre ganzer Werke zwei verschiedenartige Chrestomathien zugrunde gelegt werden, nämlich, (1) die literarische Chrestomathie (Anthologie), wesentlich nach ästhetischen Gesichtspunkten abgefaszt. Sie enthalte Musterstücke der letzten drei Jahrhunderte, in historischer Anordnung, sie vermittle die wertvollsten literarischen Erzeugnisse, um den jugendlichen Geist mit dem inneren Werdegang der Kultur des Auslands vertraut zu machen. (2) Die reale Chrestomathie (das Realienbuch) soll wesentlich der Belehrung über die äuszere Zivilisation und zugleich der Aneignung der Umgangssprache dienen. Alle Haupterscheinungen des öffentlichen und privaten Lebens — nach sachlichen Gesichtspunkten — sind in systematischer Reihenfolge zu behandeln. Sie soll vor allem die moderne Prosa berücksichtigen und das positive Wissen und die Urteilsfähigkeit der Schüler fördern.[2]

> Das Reallesebuch soll m. E. neben der Lektüre zusammenhängender Schriftstellertexte, einhergehen, . . . soll den Schüler 4–5 Jahre hindurch bez. des Realien-plans führen, eine wohlbedeutsame, aber nicht allzu anspruchsvolle Nebenstellung erhalten.[3]

The value of information in modern-language courses is to serve as data in the solving of problems concerning the foreign language and literature, the foreign people and country, including its history and institutions. The kinds and amounts of informational material to be communicated in the course in grammar and literature are discussed in Chapters IX and XI, respectively. We must now discuss the kinds and amounts of such material concerning the foreign civilization.

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[1] Kirkman, F. B., *The Teaching of Foreign Languages*, page 8 (London University Tutorial Press; 1909).

[2] Breymann, H., *Neusprachliche Reform-Literatur* (Drittes Heft), pages 123 ff. (Leipzig; 1905).

[3] *Ibid.*, page 124.

This tenet, that the civilization of the foreign nation whose language is studied, shall also be taught is now well established. The value of this has been made so evident in the teaching of the Latin and Greek classics, even, that only ignorance of its plan, purpose, and results can stand in its way in the teaching of the modern tongues. Of course, the old school knew nothing of it. This movement took its start from the modern theory of the importance of interest in education. Moreover, it was made plain by the progressives that a literature, and indeed language, cannot be understood except upon the basis of a knowledge of the people who speak it, and of their history and institutions.

Our students of education, indeed, our educational psychology, have accepted this as one of the tenets of our modern education.

> Along with the broadening of vocational training provided in high schools has come a broadening of the conception of a liberal education to include a sympathetic understanding of contemporary civilization.[1]

> With the size, the isolation of the country so unlike that of crowded Europe, in many parts of which one must speak, and in every part of which it is necessary to understand other languages than the vernacular, this backwardness is inevitable. It has gone with a certain provincialism that has characterized our national spirit. Our ignorance and lack of appreciation of things foreign is both cause and effect of our complacency with a knowledge of only one tongue. Even our foreign policy, not to mention here our consular and diplomatic service and our trade, has suffered incalculably as compared, for instance, with the Germans', because of this provincialism, of which the sad, though on the whole rather brightening, statistics of our ignorance of languages are little more than

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[1] Parker, S. C., *Methods of Teaching in High Schools*, page 5 (Ginn & Co., Boston; 1915).

> an index, but are a part. Our whole attitude towards all Latin America south of the Rio Grande is more vitally than we think, connected with the fact that in the north and east parts of the country at least we know almost nothing of Spanish. Let us hope that having as a country so recently entered into the great family of nations with the world-wide interests, we shall now qualify for this new rôle and inoculate the million young people in our secondary and academic education with the spirit of other great contemporary nations — not merely with the grammar and vocabulary of these lands, but make them feel their life, share their aspirations, understand their point of view, and thus strengthen fraternal bonds, and increase the motives of peace and good will between them and us.[1]

Numerous other writers might be quoted to show practical unanimity of opinion upon this subject. Suffice it here to append a number of references.[2] In addition I may quote for the United States the report of the Committee on the Collegiate Training of Teachers of Modern Foreign Languages[3] as follows:

> Apparently all correspondents consider it desirable that candidates should possess some knowledge of the history and civilization of the nation whose language and literature they teach, and there seem to be but few institutions where this aspect of the training of teachers does not receive more or less systematic attention.
>
> About one half of the correspondents replying report special departmental courses on the foreign civilization, German and

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[1] Hall, G. Stanley, "Some Psychological Aspects of Teaching Modern Languages," *Pedagogical Seminary*, 21 : 263, 1914.

[2] Bagster-Collins, E. W., *The Teaching of German in Secondary Schools*, page 186 (1908); Arnold, F. R., "*Couleur Locale* in the French Classroom," *School Review*, 13 : 540–543, 1905; Wolf, E., "Die Realien im deutschen Sprachunterricht," *Monatshefte für Deutsche Sprache und Pädagogik*, 4 : 240–247, 1903; Wolf, E., "Hilfsmittel für den modernsprachlichen Unterricht," *Monatshefte für Deutsche Sprache und Pädagogik*, 6 : 226–238, 1905; Blayney, T. L., "The Modern Languages as Cultural Disciplines," *Educational Review*, 41 : 478–488, 1911; Guerard, A. L., "The Teaching of French Civilization," *Modern Language Journal*, 7 : 257–267.

[3] Preliminary Report made at the Modern Language Association of America at Cleveland, Ohio, December, 1915, but not printed; see also numerous articles in the *Modern Language Journal* in Appendix A.

Romance departments being about equally represented. The others content themselves with incidental work in conversation, composition, and literature courses, and with outside reading. Very few of these have systematic tests of the knowledge thus acquired. The majority report special lectures in this field either in departmental clubs or as public addresses.

Illustrative material, such as lantern slides, pictures, post cards, and the like is considered a highly valued adjunct by most departments represented in the replies. As regards regular courses in history, less than half the correspondents feel that their history departments offer the courses which they would like their candidates to have. The type of work desired seems to be a course in general medieval history followed by a detailed study of the modern period for the nation represented by the language study.

We have a Latin word, which has received considerable vogue, to designate this work. It is *realia*. *Realia* from Latin *res*, thing, designates things, in contradistinction to words. In modern-language instruction, then, it means that not only a knowledge of the language of the foreign nation is to be taught, but a knowledge of its things: institutions, history, people, etc., as indicated further above. Thus a German writer suggested[1] that French and English geography, history, etc., should be taught in the French and English languages in the schools of Germany. Nowhere has this program been carried out, owing, no doubt, to reasons of inadequate facilities, but bits of the history, geography, and politics of foreign nations are being taught in America, as well as all over Europe, in modern-language courses.

In this brief for this work, I have already touched upon the point that it yields great interest. We may develop this a bit further here. It is difficult to keep pupils interested in learning merely verbal forms for long stretches of time. If they are live children, or men and women, they want to learn about *things*. Hence, instruction in language cannot afford to allow itself to be reduced to mere verbalism. It must always be accompanied by instruction concerning things. Indeed, what is the prime ultimate object in taking a course in a foreign language? Is it discipline? It is not. Is it the acquisition of skill? It certainly is not. Is it enjoyment? No! Then what is it? For the engineer, the business man, the scientist, the medical student, for man, woman, and child who are striving for a "general" or "cultural" value — and these classes include 99 out of every 100 cases — the ultimate aim is a knowledge of foreign *things*. If not, why do they wish to be able to read?

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[1] Weil, W., *Die Neue Sprachenkunst* (München; 1884, 48 pages).

And finally it has been contended also that the knowledge of foreign civilizations will make for international conciliation.[1]

> A further reason commonly given for teaching a foreign language is that it supplies the best introduction to a deeper understanding of a foreign nation's character and achievements as shown in its history, literature, art, institutions, and customs. This knowledge, it is held, tends to weaken national prejudice in favor of the good will that alone renders possible the exercise of sound judgment on international matters. It may well be conceded that knowledge of a foreign nation's achievements, and recognition of the fact that its institutions and customs may differ from our own, without being any worse, must of themselves help to undermine the queer conceit that measures everything by native standards of value. And no profound study of another people's character is required to dispel venerable illusions of the kind typified by the common schoolboy notion of the Frenchman as a weak-kneed creature of uncertain nerves, which finds incisive, if untutored, expression in the following statement by a local examination candidate: "*On ne joue pas à football en France parce qu'il y est une grande terreur.*"[2]

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[1] Mason, D. G., *Music as an International Language*, No. 67, pages 5 ff. (American Association for International Conciliation, New York; June, 1913).

[2] Kirkman, F. B., *The Teaching of Foreign Languages*, page 6 (University Tutorial Press, London; 1914); see also Armstrong, E. C., "The Place of Modern Languages in American Education," *School Review*, 19: 596–609, 1911. (Modern-language study gives an insight into foreign culture and makes for mutual understanding and peace between nations.)

The American writings on this phase of modern-language instruction have been tabulated.[1] It will be seen that the first articles on the subject appeared in 1896 and their number has increased steadily ever since. Classrooms, also, are showing the change. Tabulations made in 1911 by the writer, but never published, show that even at that time 48 per cent of the colleges had considerable amounts of maps, charts, plans, illustrations, lantern slides, and *realia* books. And it is very evident from the growing interest in the subject, as well as from personal inspection of numbers of classrooms, that the collections have grown since then. Even all the better equipped high schools now possess some such apparatus.

The growing interest in the subject is further attested by the increasing appearance of books which convey such information. The leading publishers of modern-language texts have now dozens of such books on French, German, and Spanish *realia;* while numerous books contain such material, in part.

Further, the number of courses in the civilization of the foreign countries, given in colleges and universities, is rapidly increasing. There is now no university which does not offer one or more such courses and in the standard colleges, also, provision is being made in connection with the teachers' course in methods, in the lecture courses, and, in less well-equipped schools, incidentally in foreign-language clubs, etc.

There is, however, still a lack of thorough courses in this subject *to accompany* the regular class instruction in elementary, intermediate, and advanced courses in foreign languages, that is, a course planned systematically with a view to increasing difficulty, and extending throughout the customary four years of the high school, or college.

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[1] Handschin, C. H., *The Teaching of Modern Languages in the United States*, pages 107–134. See also Appendix A below.

So far, this teaching has been incidental, somewhat haphazard, and therefore not as valuable as it should be, both as to interest aroused and as to actual results achieved.

Several schools have made a start on such a course. We shall reproduce in this chapter the plan used in the German classes in Miami University, as well as similar plans for French and Spanish classes, which, together with help found in the references given in this chapter, may serve as suggestive beginnings.

What is needed eventually is a flexible course which can be adapted to varying conditions, but which will insure to the student a certain minimum amount of information along these lines. Additional helps as to such a course, for the three languages concerned, are given below, in more detail, with hints as to procedures.

One kind of work which many teachers have been doing for years is studying the localities in which scenes of the stories read are laid. This may serve as our point of departure.

Most classrooms are equipped with a map of the foreign country. However, some teachers merely point out the locality and we see at once that our practice must include better pedagogical procedures. The teacher will, of course, point out the locality, in case no one in the class knows; but important places, at least, will be located repeatedly and the repetitions must be made by the student.

Moreover, the larger divisions of the country, in which a place lies, must be noted as well. In order to do this well, we must teach the class to draw the map of the country. Here two books, *A Sketch Map of Germany*,[1] and *France, a French Composition Book, with Sketch Maps*,[2] are indispensable.

France contains a world of information in addition to the maps, and it is, moreover, well arranged. The maps on "The roofed-square Paris Method" have the great advantage of being easy to draw. There is an English and a French exposition of each map and a questionnaire in French based upon the expositions. There are 20 maps and 20 exercises, all told. A few of the subjects are: the principal rivers, the most noted mountains, climate, density of the population. The subtitle of the book is *A French Composition Book*, and, indeed, I know of no more delightful composition book.

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[1] By C. J. Kullmer, Cramer Publishing Company, Syracuse, New York.

[2] By Kullmer and Cabeen, Cramer Publishing Company, Syracuse, New York.

For Germany, *The Sketch Map of Germany* will do a similar service. Although this pamphlet has not the composition-book features contained in *France*, and needs also to be revised, it does, however, contain a store of information which is extremely valuable to any one taking a course in German.

Classroom maps need to be selected with care. Neither so much data on a map that the student cannot find the woods for the trees, nor a mere outline map, is desirable. The ideal is a modicum of data and relief features so that the student can locate the principal places readily and so that the class can discern them from their seats.[1]

Singing the songs of the foreign nation is also practiced largely and is certainly highly to be commended. It is distinctly useful for forming a good pronunciation and for establishing a feeling for the idiom besides conveying information concerning the foreign nation. It is also a fine variant exercise to help over moments when interest threatens to lag or where strength is giving out. Moreover, it is the pleasantest way of memorizing material, and, as we know, rhythmic form aids retention. It should be used wherever conditions allow. There are now several useful and delightful collections of French, German, and Spanish songs published in this country. (See under bibliography below.)

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[1] Desirable maps of this description are: For new maps of Germany see *Modern Language Journal*, 7: 442–443. For France — *Vidal-La Blanche, France* (Armand Colin, Paris); or Levasseur, *Carte murale de la France* (Delagrave, Paris). For Spain — Lucerna, José Paluzie, *Mapa general de España, Portugal,* etc. (Barcelona; 1913).

We come now to the matter concerning the foreign civilization, which we are to use in connection with our four years' course. For the reason that I wish to give definite suggestions, I will depart from the principle otherwise adhered to in this book of not mentioning specific American school texts and will mention the songbooks, and several texts by less well-known publishers.

The *realia* text will, of course, in great part, be used as regular class texts. In this case, full and careful use of the accompanying illustrations should be made. The teacher will do well to remember also that American pupils are not able to understand many of the illustrations at all, without some interpretation. This will offer opportunity for discussions in the foreign language and such work should be carefully planned and carried through.

The emphasis in this work should be laid upon the nineteenth and twentieth century affairs. There is considerable material on this period to be found even in a high-school library, to which references should be made freely.

Course in Foreign Civilization to Accompany the Regular Work of the Four Years' Course

French I

(For titles of available American editions of songs, readers, etc., see the following pages under proper headings.)

Songs: six to be studied, sung, and memorized.
Realia reading text (one to be used every year).
Geography: Kullmer and Cabeen, *France.* Subjects to be studied: outlines of France; the principal rivers and mountains, and four cities: Paris, Marseille, Lyon, and Bordeaux; area of France; population and form of government. All localities read about to be located on the wall map.

Additional material: histoires, jeux, rondes, etc. (See also Appendix A.)

French II

Songs: six to twelve to be studied, sung, and memorized.

Realia reading text.

Geography: the same text as in French I; review of the work of the preceding year. Subjects studied: the climate; the railways; facts about the language; four additional cities; the old provinces. All localities read about to be located on the wall map.

Additional material: illustrative material; one of the journals designed for school use.

French III

Songs: further songs learned in connection with French Club activities.

Realia reading text.

Geography: the same text as heretofore. Review. Subjects studied: four additional cities of 100,000 inhabitants; the universities; economic resources of France. All localities read about to be located on the wall map.

Additional material: menus, handbills, posters, clippings from papers, guide books on France, etc. Use of one of the journals designed for school use.

French IV

Songs: as in French III.

Realia reading text.

Geography: text as heretofore. Review. Subjects studied: three additional cities; places of literary interest, and of interest to science; famous resorts; educational districts; France under the Romans; localities pointed out on the wall map as heretofore.

Additional material: illustrative material; real French books of France; a French journal or newspaper.

German I

Songs: six to be studied, sung, and memorized.

Realia reading text.

Geography: places studied to be located on the wall map.
Text: Kullmer, *A Sketch Map of Germany.* Subjects studied: the boundaries of Germany; the six largest rivers; the principal mountain ranges; four former kingdoms and four cities: Hamburg, Köln, Frankfurt, and München.
Additional material: German games; illustrative material.

German II

Songs: six to twelve to be learned, as heretofore.
Realia reading text.
Geography: same text. Places to be located on the wall map. Review of work of preceding year. Subjects studied: the former grand duchies; High and Low German areas, the 3 free cities, and Berlin, Heidelberg, Nürnberg.
Additional material: Kron, *Der Kleine Deutsche.* Bielefeld.
Leopold, *Im Deutschen Reich.* Bielefeld. Or,
Kron, *German Daily Life.* Newson & Co., New York.

German III

Songs: additional songs learned in connection with German Club activities.
Realia reading text.
Geography: places located on map, as heretofore. Text as in German I and II. Review. Subjects studied: the former five duchies and seven principalities (of the latter, merely the general location in the middle of the country is to be noted); the language, Indo-European *Sprachbaum;* and the following cities and regions: Eisenach, Weimar, Leipzig, der Rhein, der Schwarzwald.
Additional material: Kron, *Der Kleine Deutsche* or *German Daily Life* (continued). The Baedeker guide books for Germany. Kürschner, *Das ist des Deutschen Vaterland.* Leipzig. Use of one of the journals designed for class use.

German IV

Songs: as in German III.
Realia reading text.

Geography: places located on map, as heretofore. Text as heretofore. Review. Subjects studied: the Protestant and Catholic areas; settlement and village types; the University cities, and the following cities and regions: Dresden, Breslau, der Harz, die Heide, die Nord- und Ostsee.

Additional material: Leopold, *Im Deutschen Reich.* Kürschner, *Das ist des Deutschen Vaterland.* Illustrative material. A German journal, or newspaper.

Spanish I

Songs: several to be studied, sung, and memorized.

Realia reading text.

Geography: all localities studied to be located on the wall map. With the aid of a sketch map of Spain, and reference to an atlas, which may be kept in the schoolroom, much valuable drill in drawing maps, and information concerning Spain may be given. Subjects studied: outlines of Spain, the location of the rivers, mountains, and principal cities.

Spanish II

Songs: several songs to be learned, as heretofore.

Realia reading text.

Geography: all localities read about to be located on the wall map, as heretofore. Sketch-map work of Spain. Review. Subjects studied: the provinces and their products.

Additional material: Bonilla, *Spanish Daily Life* (Newson & Co.), etc. Use of one of the Spanish journals designed for class use.

Spanish III

Songs: learning of additional songs in connection with Spanish Club work.

Realia reading text.

Geography: all localities read about to be located on the wall map. Sketch-map work of South America, the boundaries of the various countries of South America and their products, their capitals and principal cities.

Additional material: clippings from newspapers and magazines. Bonilla, *Spanish Daily Life* (continued). Use of a Spanish journal designed for class use.

Spanish IV

Songs: as in Spanish III.
Realia reading text.
Geography: review. Subjects studied: mountain ranges, rivers, the population, and language of the various countries of South America.
Additional material: real South American books; a South American journal, or newspaper.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Among the most important helps for furnishing data are books concerning the foreign civilization. Such books are, of course, readily available in the foreign language and written by natives for the use of natives. These books the teacher should know and use freely; i.e., the standard geographies and histories (political, economic, social, etc.). To make this suggestion more concrete, a few of the most important titles in each of these branches are here appended.[1]

France: Travel, History, and Geography

Baedeker. *France.* Leipzig.
Betham-Edwards. *Home Life in France.* A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago.
Brownell, W. C. *French Traits* ("Chautauqua Reading Circle Literature" series). Charles Scribner's Sons, New York.
Cambon, Jules. *La France au Travail.* Roger, Paris.
Guérard, Albert Léon. *French Civilization in the Nineteenth Century.* The Century Company, New York.
Headlam, Cecil. *France* ("Making of the Nation" series). The Macmillan Company, New York.

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[1] Titles of American textbooks are not given, although these should be used *always* in elementary instruction and *generally* in advanced. For titles see the catalogues of World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York; American Book Company, New York; Ginn & Co., Boston; D. C. Heath & Co., Boston; Henry Holt & Co., New York; The Macmillan Company, New York; Scott, Foresman & Co., Chicago; Charles E. Merrill Company, New York; Oxford University Press, New York; Newson & Co., New York; Benj. H. Sanborn & Co., Boston.

Jousset, P. *La France, Géographie Illustrée.* Librairie Larousse, Paris.

Lavisse, Ernest. *Nouveau Cours d'Histoire de France* (2 vols.). Colin, Paris.

Lavisse and Parmentier. *Album Historique* (4 vols.). Paris.

Lynch, Hannah. *French Life in Town and Country.* G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York.

Malet, Albert. *Cours d'Histoire de France* (2 vols.). Paris.

Rambaud, Alfred. *Histoire de la Civilisation Française.* Paris.

France: Newspapers and Journals

Choses et Autres; Petit Journal Mensuel, à l'Usage Spécial des Etudiants de la Langue Française. Philadelphia Publishing House, Philadelphia. See also Chapter VI, p. 139.

Le Courrier des Etats-Unis. (A daily newspaper.) New York.

L'Echo des Deux Mondes. 592 South Dearborn Street, Chicago.

L'Illustration. Paris.

Lectures pour Tous. Hachette, Paris.

Schinz, Albert. "Newspapers and Periodicals in France; Hints to Subscribers," *Modern Language Journal,* 5: 139–145.

France: Civilization, Customs, and Institutions

Géographie Illustrée. Larousse, Paris.

Grand Dictionnaire Universel du Vingtième Siècle (17 vols.). Librairie Larousse, Paris.

Kron. *Le Petit Parisien.* Freiburg.

La Belgique Illustrée. Larousse, Paris.

La France. Larousse, Paris.

Larousse. *La Grande Encyclopédie* (31 vols.). Librairie Larousse, Paris.

Nouveau Larousse Illustré. Larousse, Paris.

France: Language and Literature

Atlas Larousse Illustré, Part I: "La France et ses Colonies." Larousse, Paris.

Collection Gallia (contains works of French literature). E. P. Dutton & Co., New York.

Collection Nelson. Thomas Nelson & Sons, New York.

Guides Joanne. Hachette, Paris.

Histoire de France Illustrée (2 vols.). Larousse, Paris.
Larousse pour Tous (2 vols.). Larousse, Paris.
RIPPMANN, W. (Editor). *French Life and Ways.* E. P. Dutton & Co., New York.
STROWSKI. *Tableau de la Littérature Française au XIX^e^ Siècle.* Delaphane, Paris.

Germany: Travel, History, and Geography

BAEDEKER. *Reisehandbücher.* K. Baedeker, Leipzig.
BAR and QUENDEL. *Bildersaal Deutscher Geschichte.* Stuttgart.
BARING-GOULD, S. *Germany, Past and Present.* London.
BARTLEY, G. T. C. *The Rhine from Its Sources to the Sea.* John C. Winston Company, Philadelphia.
BERRY, R. M. *Germany of the Germans.* Charles Scribner's Sons, New York.
BIEDERMANN, K. *Deutsche Volks- und Kulturgeschichte.* Wiesbaden.
BITTRICH. *Der Schwarzwald.* Velhagen und Klasing, Leipzig.
DAWSON, W. H. *German Life in Town and Country.* G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York.
—— *Germany and the Germans* (2 vols.). Chapman & Hall, London.
—— *Municipal Life and Government in Germany.* Longmans, Green & Co., New York.
—— *The Evolution of Modern Germany.* Charles Scribner's Sons, New York.
DIERCKE, C., and GAEBLER, E. *Schulatlas für höhere Lehranstalten.* Braunschweig.
GÜNTHER, R. *Deutsche Kulturgeschichte.* Leipzig.
HOWARD, B. E. *The German Empire.* The Macmillan Company, New York.
HOWE, F. C. *Socialized Germany.* Charles Scribner's Sons, New York.
JIRICZEK, O. L. *Die Deutsche Heldensage.* Leipzig.
KÜRSCHNER, J. *Das ist des Deutschen Vaterland.* Leipzig.
Land und Leute: Monographien zur Erdkunde. Velhagen und Klasing, Leipzig.
LEOPOLD, O. *Im Deutschen Reich: Handbuch der Deutschen Umgangssprache.* Freiburg i. Baden.
MEYER, ELARD H. *Deutsche Volkskunde.* Strassburg.

Meyer, Hans. *Das Deutsche Volkstum.* Leipzig.

Meyers. *Reisehandbücher.* Leipzig.

Mogk, E. *Germanische Mythologie.* Leipzig.

Müller-Bohn, Hermann. *Des Deutschen Vaterland; unter Mitwirkung Hervorragender Schriftsteller* (2 vols.). Stuttgart.

Priest. *Germany since* 1740. Ginn & Co., Boston.

Putzger, F. W. *Historischer Schulatlas.* Bielefeld.

Richard, Ernst. *History of German Civilization.* The Macmillan Company, New York.

Sachs. *Die Deutsche Heimat.* Halle.

Scherr, J. *Deutsche Kultur- und Sittengeschichte* (3 vols.). Leipzig.

Schevill, Ferdinand. *The Making of Modern Germany.* A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago.

Stroebe, Lilian L. "Das Studium der Geographie und Landeskunde Deutschlands," *Modern Language Journal*, Vol. 1, No. 2; also Vol. 4, Nos. 6, 7, 8, and Vol. 5, Nos. 1 and 2.

Volksbücher. Velhagen und Klasing, Leipzig.

Weise. *Die Deutschen Stämme und Landschaften.* Leipzig.

Germany: Newspapers and Journals

Aus Nah und Fern. (Temporarily discontinued.) F. W. Parker School Press, Chicago.

Das Literarische Echo. Berlin.

Die New Yorker Staatszeitung. New York.

Hess, John A. "Anschauungsunterricht für Sprachlehrer," *Monatshefte für Deutsche Sprache und Pädagogik*, 15 : 353–356, December, 1914. (Recommends the careful use of illustrated catalogues for the enrichment of the teacher's vocabulary; suggestive bibliography.)

Illinois Staatszeitung. Chicago.

Leipziger Illustrierte Zeitung. Leipzig.

Reclams Universum (weekly). Leipzig. Die Woche, Berlin.

Germany: Civilization, Customs, and Institutions

Brockhaus and Meyer. *Grosses Konversations-Lexikon* (17 vols.). Leipzig.

Günther, R. *Deutsche Kulturgeschichte.* Leipzig.

Könnecke, Gustav. *Bilderatlas zur Geschichte der Deutschen Nationalliteratur.* Marburg.

KRON, R. *Der Kleine Deutsche.* Freiburg.

LEOPOLD, O. *Im Deutschen Reich: Handbuch der Deutschen Umgangssprache.* Freiburg i. Baden.

RATZEL, FR. *Deutschland: Einführung in die Heimatkunde.* Leipzig.

REICHARDT, R. *Die Deutschen Feste in Sitte und Brauch.* Jena.

RICHARD, ERNST. *History of German Civilization.* The Macmillan Company, New York.

SCHERR, J. *Deutsche Kultur- und Sittengeschichte* (3 vols.). Leipzig.

Spain and South America: Travel, History, and Geography

AKERS, CHARLES E. *A History of South America.* E. P. Dutton & Co., New York.

ALCÁNTARA GARCÍA, PEDRO DE. *La patria española.* Madrid.

ALTAMIRA Y CREVEA, R. *Historia de la civilización española.* Madrid.

—— *Historia de España y de la civilización española.* Barcelona.

AMICIS, EDMONDO DE. *Spain and the Spaniards.* G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York.

BAEDEKER, K. *Spain and Portugal: Handbook for Travellers.* Leipzig.

BELTRÁN Y ROZPIDE, R. *Compendio de historia de España.* Madrid.

BINGHAM, HIRAM. *Across South America.* Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston.

BOWMAN, ISAIAH. *South America: A Geography Reader.* Rand, McNally & Co., Chicago.

BRYCE, JAMES. *South America: Observations and Impressions.* The Macmillan Company, New York.

CHAPMAN, C. E. *History of Spain.* The Macmillan Company, New York.

COESTER, ALFRED. *The Literary History of Spanish America.* The Macmillan Company, New York.

FITZ-GERALD, JOHN D. *Rambles in Spain.* Thomas Y. Crowell Company, New York.

FITZ-GERALD, SYBIL. *In the Track of the Moors.* E. P. Dutton & Co., New York.

FORREST, A. S. *South America.* A. and C. Black, London.

HIGGIN, L. *Spanish Life in Town and Country.* G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York.

Koebel, W. H. *Argentina.* A. and C. Black, London.

Peck, Annie S. *The South American Tour.* George H. Doran Company, New York.

Shepherd, William R. *Latin America.* Henry Holt & Co., New York.

Zahm, J. A. *Through South America's Southland.* D. Appleton & Co., New York.

Zimmermann, J. *Spain and Her People.* London.

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Coester, A. "Periodicals for Spanish," *Hispania,* 1: 26–30.

Hispania. (Address the Secretary, Dr. Alfred Coester, Stanford University, California).

Las Novedades (an illustrated weekly). 225 West 29th Street, New York.

El Nuevo Mundo (an illustrated weekly). Madrid.

Revue Hispanique (annual). Paris and New York.

Robles, J. "Periodicos españoles," *Modern Language Journal,* 7: 289–292.

Spain and South America: Civilization

Barbarin, Gracia. *Historia de la pedagogía española.* Madrid.

Barzan, R. *Terre d'Espagne.* Paris.

Bulletin of the Pan-American Union (monthly). Washington, D. C. (The Spanish edition is $1.50 per year.)

Calvert, A. F. Spanish Series. John Lane Company, New York. The list of subjects is as follows: *Alhambra of Granada; Cordova; El Greco; Goya; Leon, Burgos, and Salamanca; Madrid; Murillo; Royal Palaces in Spain; The Escorial; The Prado; Toledo; Velázquez; Valladolid, Oviedo, Segovia, Zamora, Avila, and Saragossa.*

Montaner y Simon. *Diccionario enciclopedico hispano-americano de literatura, ciencias y artes.* Barcelona.

Diercks, G. *Das Moderne Spanien.* Berlin.

Dieulafoy, M. *Art in Spain and Portugal.* New York.

García, Gustavo. *La Iglesia y España Contemporánea.* Paris.

Hay, J. *Castilian Days.* London.

Pardo Bazán, E. *Por la España Pintoresca.* Barcelona.

Ward, G. F. B. *Truth about Spain.* New York.

The following titles were suggested by Professor John D. Fitz-Gerald. For a more recent list of French and Spanish books, see *Modern Language Journal*, 7: 205–220 (1923).

Minimum High School Library for Teachers of French

BRUNETIÈRE. *Histoire de la Littérature Française Classique.* (3 vols.).
FORTIER. *Histoire de France.*
GASC. *Library French and English Dictionary.* Henry Holt & Co., New York.
HASSELL. *The French People* ("Great Peoples Series").
LANSON. *Histoire de la Littérature Française.* Or,
ABRY-AUDIC-CROUZET. *Histoire Illustrée de la Littérature Française.*
LAROUSSE. *Dictionnaire pour Tous* (2 vols.). Or,
Dictionnaire Général de la Langue Française (2 vols.). Darmesteter, Hatzfeld, Thomas.
Petit Larousse Illustré. Or,
LITTRÉ. *Dictionnaire Abrégé de la Langue Française.*
RAMBAUD. *Histoire de la Civilisation Française* (2 vols.).
SPIERS and SURENNE. *French and English Dictionary.* D. Appleton & Co., New York.
WRIGHT. *French Literature.* Or,
NITZE and DARGAN. *A History of French Literature.* Henry Holt & Co., New York.

Minimum High School Library for Teachers of German

BAEDEKER, K. Guide books. Leipzig.
BARTELS, A. *Handbuch zur Geschichte der Deutschen Literatur.* Leipzig.
BEHAGHEL, O. *Die Deutsche Sprache.* Leipzig.
CURME, G. O. *Grammar of the German Language.* The Macmillan Company, New York.
DUDEN. *Orthographisches Wörterbuch der Deutschen Sprache.* Leipzig and Wien.
FRICK and POLACK. *Aus Deutschen Lesebüchern* (17 vols.). Leipzig and Berlin.
KLUGE. *Etymologisches Wörterbuch der Deutschen Sprache.* Strassburg.

Koch, M. *Geschichte der Deutschen Literatur.* Leipzig.
Könnecke, G. *Bilderatlas der Geschichte der Deutschen Nationalliteratur.* Marburg. (Also an abridged edition of the same.)
Kürschner, J. *Das ist des Deutschen Vaterland.* Leipzig.
Leopold, O. *Im Deutschen Reich.* Freiburg.
Sanders. *Wörterbuch der Hauptschwierigkeiten in der Deutschen Sprache.* Berlin.
Schlessing-Wehrle. *Deutscher Wortschatz.* Eszlingen.
Weitbrecht, C. *Deutsche Literaturgeschichte der Klassikerzeit.* Leipzig.
—— *Deutsche Literaturgeschichte des* 19. *Jahrhunderts* (2 vols.). Leipzig.

There are, of course, many editions of standard German writers. One of the best for the price is Hesse's *Haus-Bibliothek Deutscher Klassiker*, containing the works of twenty classic authors in 42 volumes. Total cost $17.50.

Minimum High School Library for Teachers of Spanish

Altamira y Crevea, R. *Historia de España y de la civilización española* (4 vols.).
Black's Color Books on Spain (2 vols.).
Burke. *History of Spain to Ferdinand and Isabella* (2 vols.).
Fitzmaurice-Kelly. *Historía de la literatura española.*
Hume. *Modern Spain.*
—— *Spain: Its Greatness and Decay.*
—— *Spanish People.*
The New Velázquez Spanish and English Dictionary. D. Appleton & Co., New York.
Ticknor. *History of Spanish Literature* (3 vols.).

For recent list of Spanish books, see *Modern Language Journal*, 7: 205–220.

Short List of Illustrative Material Available for Use in the French Course

Picture post cards of France, the cheapest attractive material, can be ordered of Braun, 43 Avenue de l'Opéra, Paris. The Photoglob chromolithographs are the lowest in price and offer a great variety of subjects of all countries. Catalogue may be had of the Detroit Publishing Company, Detroit, Michigan.

HOURTICQ, L. *Art in France.* Charles Scribner's Sons, New York.
LAURENS, H. *Les villes d'art célèbres.* Paris.
—— (Editor). *Les Grands Artistes.* Librairie Renouard, Paris.
—— *Petites Monographies des Grands Edifices de la France.* Paris.
LAVISSE and PARMENTIER. *Album Historique publié sous la direction de Ernest Lavisse.* Vol. 4, "Le XVIII^e et le XIX^e Siècle," contains excellent and copious engravings. Price $4. See also *Modern Language Journal*, 7 : 257–267 (1923).

Illustrations for Use in the German Course

Picture post cards may be ordered of any German bookseller or art shop; price, from 2 cents upward. The famous series of *Künstlerkarten* may be ordered of Ackermann Kunstverlag, Barerstr. 42, Munich, Germany.

For Photoglob photolithographs see under French illustrations, preceding. *Art in Germany.* Charles Scribner's Sons, New York.

BAR and QUENDEL. *Bildersaal Deutscher Geschichte* (excellent text and illustrations covering German history to the present time). (3 vols.) Stuttgart.
BAUM. *Die Schöne Deutsche Stadt: Süddeutschland.* Piper, München.
Deutsche Burgen und Feste Schlosser. Langewiesche, Leipzig.
Künstler-Monographien. Knackfuss, Velhagen und Klasing.
KÜRSCHNER. *Das ist des Deutschen Vaterland* (with excellent text and copious illustrations of all parts of Germany). Leipzig. $3.
Monographien zur Geschichte, zur Kunst, und zur Erdkunde Deutschlands. Velhagen und Klasing, Leipzig.

Illustrations for Use in the Spanish Course

Post cards may be ordered of Hauser y Menet, Ballesta 30, Madrid.

Art in Spain. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York.
Los grandes pintores españoles contemporáneos. Biblioteca del Arte Español (Sociedad Española de Librería, Madrid).
(See also under "French" above).

Charts and Maps

HIRT, FERDINAND. *Anschauungsbilder* (with text for German and French). Breslau.

Hölzel. *Conversational Wall Pictures* (including the four seasons, the farm, mountain, forest, city, Paris, Berlin, etc.; with French, German, Spanish texts to accompany). Vienna.

La Vie Enfantine (8 pictures, with text). Delagrave, Paris.

Tableaux Ruty (a series of 12 charts, including the family, house, river, sea, farm, winter, etc.). Colin, Paris. (Ask also for catalogue of other pictures.)

Wall pictures to accompany the following beginner's books for French are also issued by the publishers:

Kirkman. *La Première Année de Français.* A. and C. Black, London.

Walter and Ballard. *Beginner's French.* Charles Scribner's Sons, New York.

For further pictures ask for catalogue of G. E. Stechert, booksellers, New York.

Note. In a school where there are no funds whatever available, the teacher can clip, and have the pupils clip, illustrations from journals, catalogues, papers, etc., and thus get a valuable collection without expense.

French Songbooks

Carter, H. *Petit Recueil de Chants Français à l'Usage de l'École et de la Famille.* Oxford University Press, New York.

Jameson and Heacox. *Chants de France.* D. C. Heath & Co., Boston.

Walter and Ballard. *French Songs.* Charles Scribner's Sons, New York.

German Songbooks

Deutsches Liederbuch. D. C. Heath & Co., Boston.

German Songs. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York.

Scherer and Dierks. *Deutsche Lieder.* American Book Company, New York.

Spanish Songbooks

Juncos and Colon. *Canciones Escolares,* I–II. Silver, Burdett & Co., Boston.

There are also ten songs with the music in *Modern Spanish Lyrics* by Hills and Morley. Henry Holt & Co., New York.

RECREATION THROUGH REALIA

In enjoyment exercises it is less a question of imparting information than of enlisting the interest by pleasurable exercises and thus creating and fostering abiding interests and habits of noble enjoyment.

We recognize, to be sure, that the work in information and enjoyment overlaps somewhat. However, with this distinction: the exercises in enjoyment should have the nature of play while informational exercises should always have the nature of work.

The best approved methods of creating abiding interests through play are by occasional short rest periods for singing, or showing pictorial matter. Such exercises must be wisely restricted. However, picture post cards, other pictorial material, and slides should be shown at the right moment and cannot wait for the bi-weekly meeting of the foreign-language club.

In the absence of a reflectoscope, or a moving-picture machine, post cards and other pictorial material are best mounted on large cardboards, arranged by cities, or regions, or subjects, so that a picture may be shown simultaneously to the whole class and interest concentrated on one thing at a time, instead of allowing it to scatter, as when individual cards are passed out among the class. A second reason for doing this is, that without the teacher's interpretation the picture loses much of its value to the students. When a picture is shown, students should be encouraged to leave their seats and gather about it, if necessary, to see well.

Singing should be restricted to a stanza or two at a time. Especially when the song is first taught, singing it should follow immediately.

Reciting poems is also occasionally used as an enjoyment exercise by some teachers. Only volunteers are generally chosen for this work, students to whom this comes easily, or who take an especial interest in reciting.

This is about the extent of the enjoyment exercises that can profitably be done in class, except in the case of young pupils who can learn best by playing games of various kinds.

For the rest, the foreign-language club serves. This is, in common practice, a conversation club. The conversation — in the foreign language, of course — must be made as pleasurable as possible. To do this, conversations must be planned by some one competent to do so. The periods must be short. Progressive conversations will make this possible, that is, conversations in which each speaks for a few minutes to a partner, then to pass on to a new partner. The subjects must be easy. For instance, telling anecdotes comes easy, or a getting-acquainted conversation: home, occupation of father, school and church affiliations, summer work or recreation, studies being pursued in school, student activities engaged in. Current happenings in school, or civic, or national life, current activities among the student body, recent or future vacations, recent or near-by entertainments, offer ample subjects.

Singing songs always occupies a considerable portion of the hour. Besides general singing, individual performers may be staged for solos, duets, etc., instrumental or vocal.

The victrola, also, has its place. There is an abundance of French, German, and some Spanish music now available for this purpose. The general catalogues of the phonograph companies will acquaint the teacher with this. The value of music for interpreting national ideals can scarcely be overestimated.

Readings, essays, and debates often prove stimulating. It seems best, generally, that only volunteers perform, unless the students take the matter in hand themselves and require members of the club to perform. Incidentally it may be stated that student rule in these clubs is, under departmental guidance, the best form of administration. Some member of the department needs to be responsible for this supervisory work. The student officers of the club will want a faculty member with whom to counsel concerning programs, needed material, etc.

Debates, in order to be most valuable, should be on easy subjects and the work more or less impromptu. At times, any one wishing to take a hand in the debate should be allowed to do so. I have seen debates of both kinds carried on very successfully.

Games of various kinds, also, are useful, especially for adolescents. Reference to proper collections has already been given. (See Chapter VI.) For our purpose linguistic games are best.[1]

Celebration of the national holidays of the foreign country, of the natal days of its great men and women are also useful. On such occasions the person, or event, should be properly fêted by a display of flags, busts, portraits, etc. In case of literary celebrities citations from their works by members of the club, selected readings, plays, or parts of plays, may be introduced. A eulogistic oration has its place, also, as well as songs appropriate to the occasion. In case of musical celebrities, selections from their works may be performed or played on the victrola. In case of artists, reproductions of their works may be exhibited.

Annual festivals: French, German, Spanish fêtes and holidays can be celebrated with little outlay of time and energy, at which some of the national traits may be brought out. Picnics and masquerades have also been put on successfully.

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[1] Further references in this line are: *Modern Language Journal*, 2: 321–331; 4: 265 ff.; 7: 93–98 (1923); *Hispania*, 1: 222–228, 235–239. See also Young, C. M., "The German Club," *Modern Language Journal*, 1: 202–215; Ping, Lilian G., *Jeux Français* (E. P. Dutton & Co., New York).

Play-acting is very useful. However, to train casts requires time and energy, and teachers are already amply burdened. Unless, therefore, this work can be assigned to some member of the department whose teaching work will, in return, be lightened, play-drilling must be voluntary and must be reduced to a minimum. It is quite feasible, of course, for strong upper-classmen to put on slight skits, or portions of plays, quite unaided by the faculty, and this should be encouraged. Many slight curtain-raisers are available.

The emphasis in all such work should not be laid upon finished acting or elaborate make-up and stage setting, but upon speaking the lines well.[1]

Keidel[2] has tabulated the activities of college German clubs. His principal findings, got by questionnaire from 45 schools, are: The purpose is to foster the study of the German language; to bring students together socially, to promote mutual understanding and a spirit of friendship between Germans and Americans. Conversation in German is the commonest chief aim. Character of the clubs: Most of them admit only students and faculty, a few admit outsiders. Most admit only advanced students who have had two or more years of German. None admit beginners. Meetings are held from once a week, to once in several weeks, commonly evenings. Some clubs have various departments; e.g., for sociability, conversation, or for more scientific studies. The fees range from 25 cents up to $2 a semester, besides an initiatory fee.

Keidel devotes some space also to plays staged by clubs.

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[1] For lists of suitable plays see the catalogues of our American publishers; also *Modern Language Journal*, 3: 331, 386–387. For German plays, see also Benedix, *Haustheater*, Leipzig (contains 46 plays); also *Monatshefte für Deutsche Sprache und Pädagogik*, 16: 50–55, 1916, which gives numerous titles.

[2] Keidel, H., "Activities, Methods, and Principles of German Clubs in American Colleges," *Monatshefte für Deutsche Sprache und Pädagogik*, 17: 116–120, 147–155.

The conclusions reached in this article are: The club should be left entirely to the students. Supervision of the conversation by faculty is unnecessary. There should be much conversation and in it the student should find self-expression.

Art like music is invaluable for interpreting the national ideals; incidentally it may serve to develop artistic appreciation and to provide matter for pleasurable conversation. Art exhibits can be arranged by getting loans of originals, or reproductions, and by utilizing illustrations in the possession of the teacher, the students, or the school. In the course of years teachers will be able to collect much such material in the form of pictorial supplements to journals, catalogues, art calendars, etc.

Art may include architecture as well as painting and sculpture and the lesser pictorial arts. Thus opportunity may be given to view and to discuss etchings, color prints, etc., also the famous buildings and styles of architecture of the foreign nation.

Parliamentary practice in the club has received some notice.[1] Among the available short collections those of Mrs. Hatfield for Spanish[2] and of Osthaus[3] for German are reproduced here.

REGLAMENTOS

To call the meeting to order — abrir la sesión.
To appoint a committee — nombrar una comisión.
All in favor signify — Los que estén pour la afirmativa digan sí.
All opposed signify — Los que estén por la negativa digan no.

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[1] Jameson, R. P., "Le Cercle Français," *Modern Language Journal*, 2: 321–332, 1918. See also the same in *Modern Language Journal*, 4: 265–279. Also to be had as a pamphlet, of the author, at Oberlin, Ohio. Price 25 cents. Contains also games, etc. Very useful.

[2] Hatfield, Mrs. Sarah M., "Reglamentos," in *Modern Language Bulletin*, Vol. 2, No. 2, 1916 (not paginated), Los Angeles, California.

[3] Osthaus, C., *Monatshefte für Deutsche Sprache und Pädagogik*, 16: 148–159.

The motion is carried — Se aprueba la moción.

To make a motion — presentar una moción.

To have the floor — tener la palabra.

To second a motion — secundar la moción.

To put the question to vote — poner la cuestión a votación.

It has been moved and seconded — Ha sido propuesto y secundado.

The motion has been lost — La moción no ha sido aprobada.

To call for nomination of officers — proceder al nombramiento de empleados.

First business in order — el primer asunto de la lista.

To keep a record of the proceedings — levantar las actas de la sesión.

Is there further business to be brought up? — ¿Hay otros asuntos de que tratar?

Are you ready for the question? — ¿Está el asunto suficientemente debatido?

To move to adjourn — proponer que se suspenda la sesión.

To lay on the table — poner el asunto en carpeta.

To take the question from the table — pedir que la mesa ponga a discusión el asunto otra vez.

To amend — modificar.

To amend constitution — corregir la constitución.

To adopt resolutions — aceptar una resolución.

To reject — desechar una proposición.

To withdraw a motion — retirar una moción.

Funds — fondos.

To postpone — posponer.

Resolved that — se resuelve que.

To rise to a point of order — pedir la palabra para una moción de orden.

To call the gentleman to order — llamar al caballero al orden.

To proceed to — continuar, proseguir.

To reconsider the vote — reconsiderar el voto.

A quorum — un quorum.

By order of — por acuerdo de.

The titles of the various officers should be: *der (die) Vorsitzende; der Stellvertreter; der Schriftführer; der Schatzmeister*. The minutes may be called *der Sitzungsebericht* or *das*

Protokoll; the treasury, *die Kasse;* the meeting, *die Versammlung, die Tagung, die Sitzung* (the latter preferably only of committee meetings); the constitution or by-laws, die *Satzungen des Vereins* rather than *die Statuten.* A list of common expressions follows:

Der Vorsitzende eröffnet die Versammlung (ruft die Versammlung zur Ordnung). — Der Schriftführer verliest das Protokoll der letzten Versammlung. — Der Vorsitzende fragt, ob jemand etwas gegen das Protokoll einzuwenden hat. — Er genehmigt das Protokoll. — Er eröffnet den geschäftlichen Teil der Versammlung. — Unerledigte Geschäfte. — Berichte von Ausschüssen. — Sonstige Geschäfte oder Ankündigungen. — Jemand stellt einen Antrag (beantragt), oder beantragt die Annahme einer Resolution. — Jemand unterstützt den Antrag. — Der Antrag steht zur Besprechung (wird besprochen). — Jemand zieht seinen Antrag zurück. — Jemand beantragt, einen Antrag auf den Tisch des Hauses zu legen. — Ein Antrag wird einem Ausschuss (einem Komittee) überwiesen. — Der Vorsitzende ernennt den Ausschuss (das Komittee). — Die Besprechung wird geschlossen. — Jemand bittet ums Wort. — Jemand hat das Wort. — Der Vorsitzende erteilt, entzieht jemandem das Wort. — Jemand macht einen Abänderungsvorschlag (beantragt ein Amendement zu einem Antrage). — Die Versammlung schreitet zur Abstimmung über einen Antrag (über einen Abänderungsvorschlag). — Die Versammlung stimmt über einen Antrag ab. — Man stimmt für oder gegen einen Antrag, oder enthält sich der Abstimmung. — Ein Antrag ist angenommen oder abgelehnt. — Die Abstimmung geschieht durch "Ja" oder "Nein," durch Aufstehen, Emporhalten der Hand, durch Auszählen, durch Akklamation, durch namentliche Abgabe der Stimme (durch Namens-Aufruf). — Es erhebt sich kein Widerspruch, dann erklärt der Vorsitzende das Resultat als endgültig. — Die Namen werden aufgerufen. — Die Gegenprobe, bitte. (Those opposed, please.) — Absolute Stimmenmehrheit. — Mehrheitsbeschluss. — Der Vorsitzende entscheidet bei Stimmengleichheit, hat die entscheidende Stimme. — Die geheime Abstimmung geschieht durch Stimmzettel. — Die Versammlung ist beschlussfähig. — Jemand bezweifelt die Beschlussfähigkeit der Versammlung. — Zur Sache! (Wenn jemand nicht bei der Sache bleibt. Call to order!) — Der Vorsitzende ruft den Redner zur Ordnung (zur Sache). — Jemand stellt eine Anfrage zur Sache. — Jemand beantragt Schluss der Diskussion (der Besprechung, der Debatte), beantragt übergang zur Tagesordnung. — Jemand beantragt Vertagung der Sache, Vertagung der Debatte, Vertagung der Versammlung. — Der Berichterstatter eines Ausschusses erstattet einen Bericht. — Der Bericht wird angenommen, abgelehnt, an den Ausschuss zurückverwiesen. — Eine Wahl wird vorgenommen (gewöhnlich durch Stimmzettel). — Kandidaten für die verschiedenen Posten werden von der Versammlung vorgeschlagen (nominiert). — Oder der Vorsitzende ernennt einen Ausschuss, der eine Liste von Kandidaten aufstellt. — Eine Ersatzwahl wird vorgenommen. — Jemand nimmt die Wahl an oder lehnt sie ab. — Jemand beantragt ein Dankesvotum für . . . (durch Erheben von den Sitzen). — Der Vorsitzende schliesst die Versammlung (vorher kann ein Antrag auf Vertagung gestellt werden). — Der Vorsitzende schliesst den geschäftlichen Teil der Versammlung. — Er überträgt dann (gewöhnlich) die Leitung der Versammlung dem Vorsitzenden des Programm-Ausschusses.

A little textbook of parliamentary practice which members of clubs may find useful is Block, *Kurzgefasstes Handbuch der parlamentarischen Praxis.* Leipzig. 25 cents.

Recitations and lectures by professors, or others, are much in vogue. The Alliance Française and the Germanistic Society of America[1] have for several years been furnishing such attractions, mostly foreign lecturers. None but affluent clubs can engage such men. However, less eminent persons can be secured more readily. For instance the teacher in a neighboring school or a visiting friend. One chief value of such work is that students learn thereby to understand other persons besides their teacher.

HANDY LIST OF TEACHING DEVICES

1. Set up a course in the study of *realia* of French, German, Spanish for your school. It should be incidental to the regular

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[1] For plans and facilities of the Alliance Française, write to Professor L. Delamarre, Secretary, 200 Fifth Avenue, New York City. For Spanish write to Instituto de las Españas, New York City.

course and parallel with it. To do this you will need not only to mention the books and material to be used, but in more detail the precise exercises, etc., to be used. Check each subject or exercise when studied, and review it occasionally.

2. Teach your class to draw the map of France, Germany, South America, or Spain, putting in the most useful data, as: boundaries, political divisions, rivers, mountains.

3. Have all localities treated of, or mentioned in the class readings, located on the wall map repeatedly.

4. Review the data contained in the map repeatedly.

5. Use pictorial material — cards, books, slides, etc. — for a few minutes, when it is called for by the reading, and when it will be profitable to the class.

6. Use some of this material in tests and examinations.

Problems

Make a list of books which you consider most desirable for a high-school library, including works on the history, institutions, language, and literature of France, Germany, Spain, and South America. Use all the bibliographical helps available in your school or town. For method of listing see Chapter XVII. The teacher may indicate the size of library; i.e., the number of titles desired.

Make a list of apparatus desirable for a modern-language (French, German, or Spanish) department in a high school, including pictorial material, charts, models, casts, busts, victrolas, slides, etc., supposing that you have $350 to expend for this. Use all available bibliographical helps.

CHAPTER ELEVEN

TEACHING LITERATURE

IT might appear that the time would be so completely occupied in elementary instruction by getting a grasp of the spoken and printed word that there would be no time left for teaching literature. And of course every well-equipped teacher understands that the study of classics cannot be taken up in the elementary (two years') course in high school.

Formerly, however, some did sin against this rule, so that it became necessary to utter warnings against it. Such warnings became common after the advent of the direct method for the reason that it is quite impossible to treat a classic text by this method in the first two years.

But if the classics cannot be read, cannot nevertheless worth-while literature be read, and can we not teach some aspects of the texts beyond the purely linguistic?

The viewpoint from which the opposition to literature study came in is quite plain. Some teachers had set their classes to reading Racine and Goethe before they were able to handle the commonest sentences colloquially, or read fluently even elementary texts. The consequences were disastrous: a study of symbols to represent, or misrepresent, the noble thought and feeling, the rankest transliteration, performed with the aid principally of the dictionary and the grammar. Naturally there came an outcry against this study of literature!

Another parallel tendency indulged in by some was to set their adolescents to writing, in English, treatises on various abstruse themes in connection with the piece in hand. In this case the history of literature, the dictionary of historical allusions, and the encyclopedia helped out the young plagiarist.

These pseudo-critical treatises on themes like "Molière and the Bourgeois Drama," "Comparison of Goethe's Iphigenia with Its Classic Prototype," "The Tragic Guilt in *Die Braut von Messina*," "A Comparison of Roman Myths in the Latin and the French," were read to wondering classmates; but little interest was shown over such second-hand work.

Let us ask, what is the chief ulterior object in modern-language instruction for the great mass of students? It is safe to say that it is to learn to read and to appreciate the foreign literature.

When we get along in the course to where we teach literature, the chief aim is to appreciate it, both as to form and content. Besides getting the meaning, which will be treated later, the points of value for adolescents are cultural and moral.

> It has been pointed out above that emotional experiences function in two important ways: (*a*) they form the essential ingredients of ideals; and (*b*) they lie at the basis of the sentiments or the higher forms of pleasure. This dichotomy furnishes the cue for the educational interpretation of art. All forms of artistic expression are media for the transmission of emotional experiences. In teaching literature, music, and similar subjects, one is apt to overlook this fact and to apply the methods that one would apply in the teaching of geography and grammar. It is not uncommon to see a class in the upper grades or in the high school "studying" classic literature for facts, criticizing it on a factual basis, subjecting it to the indignity of paraphrase and condensation, and treating it in general as they would a textbook. If the great pictures are not abused the same way, it is because the picture does not lend itself so readily to this formal and curriculized treatment.[1]

That the emotional element is dominant in the development of ideals indicates that mere didactic instruction from the intellectual standpoint is not sufficient. The emotional spirit of the instruction is the factor that counts. It is also necessary that the ideal be reenforced and confirmed through as many channels of emotional

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[1] Bagley, W. C., *The Educative Process*, page 282 (New York; 1908).

> functioning as possible — that is, through the forms of æsthetic, intellectual, and religious sentiment. Art, literature (including poetry, the drama, and fiction), music, and religion are the great media for the transmission of ideals and as such fulfill an educational function far more fundamental than our didactic pedagogy has ever realized.[1]

> The moral and in general the practical value of studies varies enormously, depending on the directness of their application to the life that the adult is to lead. . . . "Two great fields at once present themselves as peculiarly ethical: history and literature. These both deal direct with human life; they are the humanities, and as such must constitute the chief part of the moral studies."[2]

> Culture, it is clear, being an individual possession, may well vary greatly in character and actual content as between individual and individual. One person may have highly developed powers of appreciation of music and other forms of art, and nevertheless remain relatively uncultivated in such fields as science and history. Another individual will find his satisfactions and the enrichment of his leisure in the latter fields. A third may have his powers of appreciation developed in the direction of the more material economic products of modern life, and may by his standards of appreciation contribute his share to the general elevation of these fields of production.[3]

That literature is a cultural and moral force of the first magnitude is thoroughly recognized by leaders in education. However, in this day of utilitarianism it is necessary to demonstrate this over and over again. Even the teachers of language and literature themselves often do not believe in this moral and cultural force residing in their subject, or, if they do, they have not a very definite idea of it, nor of how to make it operative.

Some who read the preceding paragraphs will feel at this point like crying out over another æsthete who wishes to substitute flowery and vapid opinioning for thorough study. But this is not at all my intent nor my practice.

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[1] Bagley, W. C., *ibid.*, page 224.

[2] Monroe, *Principles of Secondary Education*, page 343.

[3] *Ibid.*, page 765.

How can appreciation be taught by the way of thorough and definite study?

To be sure the first factor in teaching the finer emotional phases of literature is oral reading. And to listen to this is, naturally, not grinding work, and those who will have nothing but grinding work in the course will have none of this fine reading.

Nevertheless, since the days of Plato, this "secondary inspiration" which the reader feels when he reads a passage in his best style and in the full emotional quality of the piece, has been chiefly employed to convey the significance and the moral content of works of literature. In all ages it has been a recognized principle among poets and readers that understanding a work of emotional literature is not predominantly a matter of erudition, but of feeling.

In the *Ion* Plato has Socrates say to Ion:

> This gift which you have of speaking excellently about Homer is not an art, but, as I was just saying, an inspiration; there is a divinity moving you, like that in the stone which Euripides calls a magnet, but which is commonly known as the stone of Heraclea. . . . I wish you would frankly tell me, Ion, what I am going to ask of you: When you produce the greatest effect upon the spectators in the recitation of some striking passage, such as the apparition of Odysseus leaping forth on the floor, recognized by the suitors and casting his arrows at his feet, or the description of Achilles rushing at Hector, or the sorrows of Andromache, Hecuba, or Priam — are you in your right mind? Are you not carried out of yourself, and does not your soul in an ecstasy seem to be among the persons or places of which she is speaking, whether they are in Ithaca or in Troy or whatever may be the scene of the poem? . . . but when any one recites a strain of Homer you wake up in a moment, and your soul leaps within you, and you have plenty to say, for not by art or knowledge about Homer do you say what you say, but by divine inspiration and by possession; just as the

> revelers, too, have a quick perception of that strain only which is appropriate to the God by whom they are possessed, and have plenty of dances and words for that, but take no heed of any other. And you too, Ion, when the name of Homer is mentioned, have plenty to say, and nothing to say of others. And the reason of this is, that you praise Homer not by art but by divine inspiration: and this is the answer to your question.[1]

This "secondary inspiration" is what Goethe meant when he said that he valued the opinion of the average woman of sensibility concerning his works more highly than that of the erudite critics. That is also what prompted Molière to read his comedies first to his old housekeeper. Her appreciation stood him in proof of their value. Now he could offer them to the élite of the nation.

That rhythm is a difficult thing to teach is patent. However, that good beginnings have been made in this matter should at least not be unknown to the teacher of literature. The appended references [2] will put him in touch with the best work on the subject and point the way for his further study.

I will quote also a passage from Judd [3] in which he sets the elementary facts of the case before us, and which, in addition, contains some valuable practical hints on teaching students how to read.

> Professor Sievers had pointed out the fact that every writer and speaker has certain typical rhythms of speech and phraseology. In his lectures he goes so far as to assert that it is possible to determine the authorship of a manuscript by finding out the rhythm in which the successive phrases fall. Furthermore, he calls attention to the

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[1] *Works of Plato*, Vol. 4, pages 286 ff. (National Library Company, New York).

[2] Sievers, E., *Grundzüge der Phonetik*, Chapters 31–36 (Leipzig; 1893); Wundt, W., *Philosophische Studien*, Chapter 10, pages 249–322, 393–430; Bolton, T. L., *American Journal of Psychology*, 6: 145–238; Gayley and Scott, *Methods and Materials of Literary Criticism*, Chapter 7.

[3] Judd, C. H., *The Psychology of High School Subjects*, pages 184 ff. (Ginn & Co., Boston).

fact that the rhythms which express different types of emotional reaction differ from each other. Thus the writer or speaker who is excited by some intense emotion will write in short and rapid rhythm and will speak in the same fashion, whereas the long, deliberate periods of unemotional discourse indicate an entirely different attitude of mind and body. The rhythms attached to different emotional situations are recognized, though not always explicitly distinguished, from the total expression, by the reader and the author. If there is a fitness in the particular rhythm, so that the content of the sentence and its rhythm are felt to be appropriate, we speak of the style as satisfactory. If, on the other hand, there is any incongruity which gives us a content of one type and a rhythm of a wholly different type, we speak of the style as inappropriate. Undoubtedly most people are more sensitive to the rhythms in oral speech than in written speech. When, therefore, one wishes to bring out the full significance of a paragraph which expresses strong emotion he can do it best by reading it aloud. This does not mean that he should give to each word any peculiar intonation; indeed, the emotion is not by single words and their emphasis, but rather by the general rhythm of the whole paragraph. Some teachers of reading make much of the principle that the voice must be raised and lowered so as to express the emotions which are carried by certain words. It is often not the change in pitch which is significant in an emotional passage. The rate at which words flow is a more significant fact. As stated above, the ordinary individual does not analyze the situation far enough to pick out the rhythm as a separate part of the whole situation. The passage seems to him to have a certain emotional coloring with the words and with the ideas as they flow through his mind. He does not realize that the source of the emotional experience is the rhythm of the words rather than their content. The meaning of this statement can perhaps be best illustrated by referring to the fact that the little child who is first learning to read does not read sentences, but reads single words or short phrases. For him the sentence and the thought are broken up so much that he gains the meaning very laboriously. As soon as he masters the sentence so that he can read it with a single rising or falling expression embracing the whole series of words, he will be expressing a degree of maturity in the reading process which is instantly recognized by the teacher. So significant is this grouping together of all the words of a sentence that one can test by the child's intonation his ability to master the whole of an idea as distinguished from its separate elements. There is no more significant development in the child's ability to read poetry than his ability to keep the voice from dropping at the end of a line which does not finish a given idea. To get beyond the single verse and modulate the voice so as to include the next verse in a single expression shows that the whole idea and the emotional experience which properly attaches to it have come to be more significant for the child than the single word or the mechanical processes involved in reading.

The teacher must make evident the variations of rhythm by his oral rendition of various pieces. And since the rhythm is so thoroughly bound up with the emotional state of the writer, and the rhythm, as well as the emotional element, is got in its fullest force only by reading aloud, students must be taught to read aloud, not the halting, unmeaning procedure which often passes for reading, but reading based upon full comprehension and feeling. Such reading of *Wilhelm Tell* on the part of a class of boys formed, I think, the finest and most inspiring recitation in a modern-language class which I have ever witnessed.

The teacher himself needs to practice oral reading much, and he will be surprised at the meaning which a piece — even a well-known one — takes on, when he reads it in this way. I may say that I never got the full emotional value of Kleist's *Prinz Friedrich von Homburg* until I read it to a class of college students.

Much of the moral and cultural value of a piece may also be brought out by such reading. Intonation, breathing, facial expression, may serve to stamp the ideals of the piece upon the hearers.

Indeed, this is the method *par excellence* for driving home ideals. It is not well to speak much about ideals, although attention should be called to them briefly. Let the oral rendition of the piece emphasize them. Reading aloud to the class by the teacher or by the gifted students of the class is not lost time. It may be made to serve the highest purposes.

Our brief for moral education through the modern languages is found in Chapter III. In teaching morals we appeal primarily to the will, and to omit training of the will, and of the emotions which actuate the will largely, would, we are agreed, be disastrous.

Cultural training is a term so much abused that it needs definition, if we are to be sure of what we mean. To have broad culture means to have knowledge and appreciation of many situations in life and of the arts and sciences. History is the deposit of the experience of the race. Literature, however, offers a broader range of experiences because of its method of selection and recombination, whereas that of history is generally transcript. Again history has been prevalently a record of fact — literature a record of ideals.

Literature should be taught as a broadly cultural subject with some emphasis on ideals. Some branches of the curriculum are adapted to inculcate one thing, others another. Each branch should be made to do what it best can do. The teacher of mathematics, or chemistry, or manual training, does not find the abundant facility for introducing problems of morals and human ideals, of right, and the good, and the beautiful, that the teacher of literature does, as the quotation from Bagley above has emphasized.

Then there is the appreciation of the beautiful which, also, may readily be cultivated in the study of literature, and which should function in the life of the learner as a relaxing and ennobling agency which enables him to bear the stress of life's work without breaking down, and as a subject in which to employ his leisure nobly.

How the appreciation of good pictures may be taught has been touched on in Chapter X. As another help may be mentioned the pictorial illustrations of literature to be found in many of our school texts. This may be made very illuminating by comparing various pictures which treat the same theme but are done by different artists. Additional pictorial treatments of subjects contained in a text may be brought into the class for this purpose by the teacher, for instance, the illustrations of *Hermann und Dorothea* by Ramberg reproduced in Palmer's edition, those of Kaulbach and Hofman in von Minkwitz's edition, and the reproductions contained in Allen's edition of the epic. What different conceptions of these characters by these artists, the first two noble, elegant; the other, Philistine and provincial!

But does our study of literature end with the oral rendition, or begin with it, for that matter? Plato, quoted above, as an advocate or spirited reading, devotes a great portion of the *Ion* to showing that however important feeling and sensibility are for comprehending a piece, knowledge is no less important, and that no one can read well who does not thoroughly understand the many departments of knowledge attended to in the piece.[1]

Here is where the dissecting studies of the philologists may come in for mention. Such study has been carried, by some, far beyond what we can, in conscience, recommend for high-school and college classes of the first four years, and includes etymology, comparative use of words by various authors, erudite study of the form, including its provenience historically, study of the technique of literary workmanship, study of the genesis and of the status of the work and of its influence on later works, etc.

When verbalism was the thing in education, this may have done very well. But if today the ideal in education is to give the learner a first-hand acquaintance of the things for which words stand, as far as possible, then our teaching of literature must include more of first-hand acquaintance with the works themselves. Our students do not so much need to know about literature, as they need to know literature. And besides, analysis, and above all, destructive criticism, are not for adolescent minds.

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[1] *Op. cit.*, pages 290–298.

Let us, basing upon these principles, set down what will subserve the ends of our young students, and at the same time will offer definite work of a character-molding and truly disciplinary kind:

As to content: (1) learning the meaning of the text; (2) studying the allusions to historical or contemporary interests, persons, etc.; (3) memorizing select passages. *As to form:* (4) learning the meanings of tropes; (5) slight study of the poetic form (meter, rhyme, stanza, epic or dramatic structure); (6) slight study of the circumstances out of which the work arose, together with slight biographical data concerning the author; (7) recalling works of our American literature which exhibit analogies to the work in hand.

Caption 1 has already been treated in Chapters V and VII.

Caption 2, studying the allusions, will be done generally by reading the editor's notes, or, in more advanced study, by referring to standard reference books.

Caption 3, the memorial work, has been advised earlier from the viewpoint of good pronunciation. Here it is of great value because the memorized passages enable the student to reproduce ideals and thoughts anywhere, at any time. The selections, which should be gems of the highest value, thus become a part of his *vade mecum* as much as the multiplication table.

(4) Learning the meaning of tropical expressions offers incidentally a valuable review of rhetoric. The figures may be read up again in the rhetoric, and, if desirable, the foreign equivalents of the terms may be dictated to the class. If an

assignment includes picking out and classifying the figures contained in a piece, it will help the student to distinguish between the value of good and poor imagery.

(5) The study of the poetic form offers a review of prosody. The equivalent nomenclature in the foreign language may be dictated, if desirable. Labeling the rhyme, meter, stanza, etc., need be the work of only a few minutes in a class, while the study of epic and dramatic structure will probably be reserved for the advanced classes and may be done as part of the review work. Here, also, but little time need be devoted to the work in class. For an outline scheme for such work see pages 256 ff. below.

(6) As to the provenience of the work, the necessary data are commonly found in the introduction to the text. Such work must be slight and should serve only one purpose; namely, to make the work more intelligible, impressive, and pleasurable. This viewpoint should be kept in mind also in connection with study, or discussion, of data concerning the author's life and works.

(7) Comparison of the piece with American works which the students, or a majority of them, know, again needs to be only transient, the analogies to be supplied by students as far as possible; and this may be set as a problem. Both similarities and dissimilarities may be mentioned. Not only dramas and novels should be paralleled, but more fruitful work, especially in elementary classes, can be done in comparing works of lesser scope, as lyrics and ballads.

In regard to the content of a piece, the teacher must bear in mind that children do not react to situations, thoughts, ideals, like adults. Often teachers do assume this. But psychology has shown that they do not,[1] indeed, that no two adults even react in the same way. How radically different from adult, youthful minds do react, affords a great field of observation and study for the teacher. One of the best ways, practically, to learn the child's reactions is by encouraging him to express himself freely on the subject in hand, by not overawing him, but by receiving graciously even puerile thoughts. The teacher will then be able to clear up misconceptions, to replace trivial or harmful conceptions by the proper ones, and thus to teach the truth effectively.

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[1] James, W., *Principles of Psychology* (Henry Holt & Co., New York, 1902).

We come to the matter of the choice of texts, a most difficult one in our practice, because of our mixed classes of boys and girls, uneven preparation, and, often, varying ages represented in the class. That a difference in age calls for a difference in the content of texts is patent. Literature reveals to the reader only that of which he has some knowledge through experience or sensibility. Literature may, indeed, be useful in opening the mind of the learner to experiences which are akin to those he has had, but if he cannot establish a connection between his experience and that told of in the book, the passage remains meaningless for him. Thus, every one takes as much out of a book as he brings to it, or a little more, although it may reënforce or add details to his knowledge or confirm his ideals. Some one has said that the book is rewritten in the mind of the reader, a statement which expresses this fact very well.

That different texts should be prescribed for girls and for boys is a principle well established by educational psychology, but quite impossible of application in coeducational institutions, except perhaps for the outside readings. At the age when boys love deeds of adventure, of strength, of endurance, of magnanimity, girls revel in more romantic, chivalrous, and even sentimental books.

What texts shall we then select for our mixed classes of adolescents?

Lancaster has shown that 812 adolescents prefer to read novels;[1] 797, poetry; 67, essays; 31, history; and 30, travel. This tabulation is useful in showing their tastes. However, their taste may not always point in the direction of their real needs. But, at all events, we must choose for them those works of emotional literature which contain the proper ideals. Beyond this, some admixture of more factual literature may form an antidote for the one-sided emotional literature which they prefer. Such, for instance, is found in biography and travels.

Now I am reminded that in large school systems teachers often have little voice in choosing texts, for the reason that they are prescribed. In this case, I may remark, incidentally, there is double reason for hiring a specialist to lay out the course, or authorizing a committee of the teachers to do so, since the larger the school system, the greater the harm done by unwise choices.

In selecting a text, it must be chosen with respect to the age of the pupils. Understanding of literature is a progressive affair and increases with widening experience. Not only that; the student does not understand a text which is beyond him, he must perforce misinterpret it.

That sentimental love tales have no place in a course for adolescents should be a patent fact, but even against this principle there is much sinning.

But aside from this, how much is contained in texts written for adults which is entirely beyond the adolescents in width of experience, knowledge, and emotion! Stories written for children are the only proper stories for children. This principle has often not been properly grasped by publishers and editors of high-school texts.

Beyond this, there are many viewpoints to be considered. Since classics are out of the question for the first two years, there remains the question, (1) of texts in colloquial or in elevated style, and (2) of purely literary texts or such containing informational material concerning the foreign country.

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[1] Lancaster, "Psychology and Pedagogy of Adolescence," *Pedagogical Seminary*, 5: 61–128, 1897.

Question 1 must be answered by giving colloquial the preference during the first year (of a four years' course), when it is needed to practice and reënforce the oral work; but in the second year a more elevated notion of style should be conveyed, if for no other reason than that a very high percentage of students take only two years of a foreign language. Concerning question 2, it must be said that, however important this informational matter is, it must not make up the bulk of the amount read. One such text a year should suffice. For the rest, there is an abundance of high-class nineteenth-century prose in all of the languages here concerned. If the class is exceptionally bright, the very easiest representative piece of the classic literature may be read, partly or wholly, in the fourth semester, in college. Choice should be restricted to the nineteenth-century authors, the emphasis being placed on narration rather than on drama and lyrics.

This raises the question of what proportion of prose and poetry should be used. Our best thought and practice indicate that lyric and dramatic poetry must not bulk large, although both should be represented, especially lyrics.

In the third and fourth years other questions will make themselves felt: (1) Shall those works of the foreign literature which influenced the world or the country of the learner be chosen predominantly? or (2) those which most strikingly characterize the foreign country? or (3) those which will afford a survey of the literary evolution of the foreign country? or (4) works of a historical or technical nature? or (5) shall the last three or four semesters be devoted respectively to the last three or four centuries of the foreign literature, as has also been proposed? This latter program would of course vary if applied to French, German, or Spanish; that is, the classic period would probably be treated last, and the classic century varies in these literatures.

It is evident at once that most of these programs are too pretentious for the last two years of our high school, and even of the college course. In favorable cases, in college courses, the idea of the literary evolution can be carried through in an elementary way. But recourse would need to be taken to anthologies, and some works could be read only in part.[1]

We are quite generally agreed that in the entire high-school course the emphasis must be laid on nineteenth-century works. This is especially true for French and Spanish, and while the German classic school stands somewhat nearer our own times than the French and Spanish, and is consequently more readily intelligible to our young people, even in the case of German the bulk of the reading must be confined to the nineteenth century.

In some quarters classic texts are banished entirely from the high-school course. Against this practice are adduced the following good points: (1) The American youth matures earlier than the European. We also read the Latin and Greek classics earlier than is done in Europe. Thus, European practice cannot be taken as our guide in this. (2) The great majority of our students take only two or three years of foreign language. If they are to be given any taste of the classics, it must be done in these years.

We must call attention, further, to the danger of discarding the classics altogether. Latin and Greek were made venerable by the famous literature they offered the student. If no older classics, and not even the nineteenth-century classics, are read, the contrast with the works read in the Latin or the

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[1] Cf. Schinz (who suggests this idea), *Educational Review*, 46: 237–251, 1913.

English course will be unfavorable to the modern languages. And besides, shall the student of the modern language get his evaluation of the foreign literature by reading one-sidedly in inferior writers, or in informational literature?

In view of all these difficulties of selecting proper texts, it is plain that those who make frequent changes in their texts are either spending an undue amount of time on this phase of their work, or are not exercising proper care in their selection of texts.

The question of the anthology is a difficult one. There is so much diversity of opinion about what it should contain, that the editors are somewhat at sea as to what is really wanted. Many teachers are set against the use of anthologies on principle. A chopped-up work they will have none of. If we could buy cheap editions of the principal works which are excerpted in the anthology so that they might be assigned partly as intensive, partly as extensive reading, many might look upon the anthology with more favor. For those who can use such texts without English notes, there are plenty of just such cheap editions available abroad, and this may increasingly be the way out of the difficulty.

But the anthology will come more and more, no doubt, because we need to give our students some insight into the literary development of the foreign country and some acquaintance with the classics, and this is about the only way of doing it.

Further, the lecture method of imparting a knowledge of literature needs to be considered. In high school it certainly has little, if any, place. A good brief history of the literature, containing an outline of the chief facts, may be put into the hands of the student in the last year or two. Outside, or extensive reading, may now be employed to the limit, to help out as to amounts. If the history of literature is properly correlated with this work, a reasonable knowledge of the foreign literature may be imparted efficiently and pleasurably. For we know that studying about literature, or hearing lectures about literature, is, for adolescents, not the best way of fostering a love for it.

In college classes of the third and fourth years, the lecture may be more in place, because it may be considered necessary to give a wider outlook upon the literary development. But here, also, the lecture must be used with the greatest moderation. *Literaturkenntnis*, not *Literatururteil*, is what is desirable for the student.

We will now discuss the teaching of the various *genres*.

If it is desired to have a slight literary study of the piece made, some such scheme as the following should be followed, wholly or partly.

A SCHEME FOR A SLIGHT STUDY OF LYRICS

1. The sequence of thought traced out in plain prose.
2. What mood does it embody?
3. Is the imagery concrete or abstract?
4. Tabulate the figures of speech.
5. Name the rhyme and meter.
6. What kind of lyric is it: nature, philosophical, love, etc.?
7. What is its significance?

As a general scheme of teaching works of literature the following may serve as a guide:

PLAN FOR TEACHING LITERARY WORKS

First step. Preparation. Creating the proper mood. Done by explaining the occasion or impulse which called forth the work, and the mood which possessed the poet while writing it. This will induce sympathy with, and appreciation of, the poet. Poems, dramas, etc., are works of art. Their reception must be prepared for. This is done by reference to the things, works, which the student knows, desires, loves.

If pictures or objects can aid here, they should be used. Moreover, the language may, no doubt will, offer difficulties. Difficult constructions, new words, various allusions need to be explained, always by analogy to known things as far as possible. Thus, the sense will be clearly grasped before the artistic rendition is undertaken. Since a study of the language is the student's task in part, the artistic rendition (oral reading, first by the teacher, then by the student) should not be undertaken until the second hour or after the student has studied the text. And we must appreciate that only now does the student fully understand and feel the work.

In case of slight lyrics or poems it will probably suffice if the teacher reads line for line; explaining, with the aid of the class and again by analogy, as much as possible; for instance, by reference to English cognates or to antonyms, synonyms. We must be careful not to become too lengthy in our commentary. We wish the work of art to speak to the student's mind and soul; then we will not interpose our personality any more than necessary. The question should be: What is the minimum of elucidation which will convey the sense and the mood desired?

Second step. When now the class has got the sense and the mood of the poem, we are ready for the second step, the oral rendition, which will usually come on the second day, after the student has studied the piece, except possibly in the case of a short poem. In reading works to the class, the teacher should have the mood himself, and his bearing and carriage should comport with the dignity of the subject to be presented. A work of art should be presented artistically, that is, in dignified manner, and with feeling.

We need to remember also that we are putting it into the student's heart as well as into his head, and that a noble poem in the heart is worth two in the head. We have before us a personality, a knowing, willing, feeling personality. Ofttimes we forget the last two and concentrate our efforts on the first. But the latter are equally important, perhaps more so, and most certainly more important in the case of adolescents. Moreover, the student will learn better if you enlist his feelings and his will. Good stimuli to the will are contained in most good works. Shall we not enlist them in our service? Are we really educating the student if we do not educate his will?

Third step. Development of time and place of action, or thought. Analyzing the characters; i.e., picking out their traits, deeds, thoughts, finding the formula which expresses their inmost being, etc. Tracing out the consecutive thought; next defining the main thought or idea, or thesis.

Next, pointing out the beauties of the artistic form: contrast, comparison, aphorisms, figures of speech, and all imagery, meter, rhyme, refrain, euphony, stateliness, or grace of language, archaisms, slang, colloquialisms, humor.

Fourth step. Practice and application. Practice may mean memorizing it, or parts of it. This is excellent and stocks the mind and heart with wisdom and beauty. Practice further means retelling or rewriting in as good language as possible. This may be done as home work or class work. Or it may be a group exercise; i.e., the class is to reconstruct the successive steps of the work from memory. Here I would recommend that the pupils who volunteer raise their hands, and the teacher select the one to continue.

Exercises in writing, but especially in oral speech, have more than linguistic value. It is a well-known fact that our volition and our conviction often crystallize just as we express a thought. Some one has said, "We think in words, and when we lack fit words, we lack fit thoughts." As a man speaks, so he is. He should be taught to express a thought clearly; he also should be given an opportunity to express his convictions.

The instruction which does not teach to proceed from *knowing* to *doing*, and from *understanding* to *willing* is woefully defective. If instruction does not ennoble the feelings, and strengthen the will, as well as impart information, and teach how to reason, it is of little value, and may be a menace.

Unfortunately, in colleges the appeal to the heart and to the will is almost entirely omitted. This is natural for a postgraduate school, where the students are adults, but, unfortunately, the attitude has been carried down to the college, and, I fear, in some degree to the high schools, by persons who were trained in postgraduate schools, or even in undergraduate colleges. We shall do well to remember that in high school and college the feelings and the will of the learner are of prime importance.

And here our instruction becomes more effective if we tie up to things which our student already knows, or feels: comparison with whatever may be in the consciousness of the student; comparison also with other literary works which the student knows (similarity and difference).

Dead knowledge is atrophying for mind, heart, and will. Knowledge must be transmuted into feeling, but more particularly into doing, and to do this we must enlist the will. By developing, knowing, feeling, willing harmoniously, we do our best work for the student.

Finally, we should add that not all works should be treated alike. The treatment, even according to a stable scheme, must vary with the piece. Some pieces will naturally lend themselves to fine oral rendition, some to written, some to historical study, some to linguistic study, some to bringing out man's attitude to nature or to God, or to man, or to country.

THE DRAMA, AND THE EPIC, INCLUDING THE NOVEL

The scheme for teaching a work of literature given above is also suited to the larger types of literature, only that here the steps will occupy greater time; i.e., they cannot be carried through entirely at one session. Much of the work under step three, above, cannot be done before the entire work has been read, and steps two and four bear taking up at each session, if desired.

However, the most desirable way of studying a work of literature, with a class of immature persons at least, is to put the matter in problem form; the problems to be dictated to the class, their answers to be brought in for a later discussion. In classes of the first four years, neither the problems nor the answers need be deep-going. There is little need to assign references to authorities to be read up. The problems should be so simple that rereading and reflection on the part of the student will suffice to bring a sufficient answer.

This plan has the advantage of getting the class to reread, and really to reflect. The discussion may be carried on in English, or, if possible to do so in the foreign language, the necessary technical terms should be dictated beforehand.

A few such problems are: (1) What titles are appropriate for the various chapters of the book? The titles to designate tersely the main thought or events of the chapter. (2) Outline the plot. Are there any subplots? (Plot = the plan of action.) If subplots, are they coördinate, or one subordinated to another? (3) Which are the foreground (chief), middle-ground (secondary), and background (minor) characters of the piece? (4) Which chief characteristics has such and such a character, or characters, of the piece? Modes of characterization to be noted may be: (*a*) the direct, by words of the author; (*b*) indirect, through the words or acts of other characters; (*c*) indirect, by the words or acts of the character himself. Traits may further be classified as mental, moral, or physical. (5) Which modes of characterization mentioned under (4) does the author use most? (6) Which character do you like best? Why? (7) Is the subject matter of the book contemporary, historical, or legendary? With what department of human life, stratum of society, professional class, or caste, does the book deal? Is the action predominantly of a physical or a psychological nature? (8) Is there *milieu* (local color) worked out? If so, by what means principally: by nature portrayal? by peculiarities of language? by pantomime? by customs and manners? by description of clothing? furniture? architecture? or by the activity of the characters? (9) What thesis, or problem, if any, is stated in the piece? Is this satisfactorily solved? The way of approach to the solution of this question is to inquire: What was the author's deepest intention in the piece? (10) What form of philosophy (optimism, pessimism, meliorism, etc.) seems to underlie the piece? Or, what stamp of social philosophy (monarchy, democracy, socialism, etc.) underlies? (11) Are there any striking peculiarities of language: archaisms? words with high poetic connotation? slang? words belonging to a certain stratum of society, or to a class, as, for instance, nobles, literati, artists, sportsmen? Are there numerous tropical, or proverbial expressions? peculiar grammatical usage? numerous ejaculations, etc.? (12) Characterize the language as to elegance, erudition, commonness, uncouthness, faulty usage, long or short words, long or short sentences or paragraphs. (13) Characterize the form: prose, rhythmic prose, rhythm, meter, rhyme, etc. (14) Is the author's attitude to his work subjective, or objective? That is, does he interject his personality in speeches, reflections, moralizations, or not? (15) Has similar material or a similar problem been treated in American literature? If so, by whom, and where? Are there any other analogies between these two contrasted works? Which is the more satisfactory treatment of the matter, or theme?

In studying a drama, the following additional problems may be studied: (16) Which characters are the protagonists, which the antagonists? Which persons do not belong to either of these groups? (17) Does this drama coincide with Freytag's scheme of the structure of a drama? (18) What kind of motives predominate in this drama: (*a*) progressive (one that furthers the action)? (*b*) anticipative, or foreshadowing? (*c*) retarding (one that causes a standstill in the action)? (*d*) retrogressive (one that takes up irrelevant matter)?[1] (*e*) retrospective (one that takes up past events)?

In studying a tragedy the following problems may be taken up in addition. (19) What is the dilemma (problem) in this piece? Is it convincing? If so, why? If not, why? (20) What is the thesis of this tragedy? Has this been treated, as far as you know, by American, or foreign writers, before, or since, its publication? If so, when? By whom? In what piece? Are there any other analogies between these two contrasted pieces? Which is the more satisfactory treatment, in your opinion? Which rôle would you like most to play or to read? Why?

In an excellent article on the study of French literature, Churchman also proposes the problem form of study. A number of his problems, which are more abstract and more suited to college students, are here appended.[2]

> To set students thinking about the great Molière one might supply them with such queries as these: (1) Does he aim to preach or to please? (2) Relation to Christian belief and ethics. (3) Does he believe human nature to be good or bad? (4) What is his ideal of conduct? (5) What were his opinions about love, marriage, women, and the relation of parents to children? (6) Is he always merely funny? (7) Is he harder on men or women? (8) Is plot or character-study his chief interest? (9) Are his endings satisfactory? (10) Are his types exaggerated? (11) What classes does he satirize especially? (12) Try to decide in the case of each

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[1] This scheme of the motives is based upon Goethe and Schiller's correspondence concerning the nature of the epic and the drama.

[2] *Modern Language Journal*, **2**: 53–68, 1917; see also *ibid.*, **7**: 149–154.

play whether it should be called a farce, a comedy of manners, or a character comedy. (13) His attitude toward the dramatic unities. (14) Are there any English plays that resemble some of Molière's? Any in Italian and Spanish literature?

HANDY LIST OF TEACHING DEVICES

1. (*a*) Read passages in your best style. (*b*) Have passages read in pupils' best style. (*c*) Have passages memorized.
2. Have tropes of a passage pointed out, and named.
3. Have the meter and rhyme named.
4. Have the piece compared very briefly with an American, or other, work to which it shows similarity.
5. Have students tell what they think is the meaning of the piece (deepest significance or intent of the author).
6. Ask pupils what book they wish to read next, and please them, if wise and possible.
7. Carry through the study of a lyric according to the plan given in this chapter.
8. Use occasionally, in advanced classes, some of the plans for studying dramas and novels outlined in this chapter.

Problems

Write an analysis of a lyric according to the scheme given in this chapter.

Write an analysis of an epic, novel, drama, or tragedy, according to the outline given in this chapter. (NOTE. In case of large or important works being analyzed, the teacher should assign two or three students to one work, each being held responsible for a certain number of the points.)

Write out the list of French, German, or Spanish reading texts which you would use in a four years' high-school course. Specify editions.

CHAPTER TWELVE

INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES, AND SUPERVISED STUDY

LITTLE has been done in modern-language teaching toward adapting work to suit individual differences. This is, however, one of the vital movements in our present-day education, and the teacher of modern languages should not lag behind in regard to it.

Simultaneous class instruction was, with few exceptions, the standard procedure throughout the nineteenth century, although in earlier centuries individual instruction had been the rule. However, toward the end of the nineteenth century educators began to call attention to the waste incurred by the system of simultaneous instruction [1] for the whole class, the disadvantages being felt by those who could not keep up with the class and those who were able to go faster than the class. Thus the two classes of students who most needed individual attention were the very ones whose needs were least met.

Statistics were furnished to show that these differences in capacities are constant among the human kind, and it has now been established with scientific accuracy.[2] This means, as Thorndike has put it, that "the highest tenth of her (any) class will in any one trait have an average ability of from one and three fourths to four times that of the lowest tenth."

> Even if she picks out half of the class and that most closely alike in any ability, she will yet find within that half a difference between the lowest and the highest such that the latter is from

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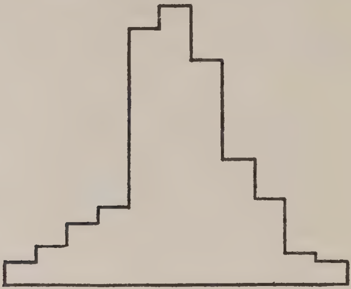
[1] Holmes, W. H., *School Organization and the Individual Child* (The David Press, Worcester, Massachusetts; 1912).

[2] Cf. Ayres, L. P., *Laggards in Our Schools* (Russell Sage Foundation, New York; 1909); Courtis, S. A., "Standard Tests in English," *Elementary School Teacher*, 14: 374–392; Thorndike, E. L., *Educational Psychology* (3 vols.), Vol. 3, pages 142–388 (Teachers College, New York; 1914).

one and one fourth to one and three fourths times as competent as the former.[1]

To illustrate this we will reproduce a graph, or a surface of frequency, representing the abilities of fourth-grade girls in thinking of the opposites of words.[2]



Score in a Test with Opposites	Number of Girls
− 9 to − 5	3
− 4 to 0	5
0 to 4	8
5 to 9	10
10 to 14	33
15 to 19	36
20 to 24	29
25 to 29	16
30 to 34	11
35 to 39	4
40 to 44	3

This graph must be read as follows: the mode is the most frequent degree of ability found in the table, in this case, 15. The median is the point on either side of which lie 50 per cent of the cases. This is got by noting the total number of abilities, dividing by 2, and counting in this number from either top or bottom. In this case there are 11 grades of ability; taking half of this and counting down 5½ cases from the top we strike 15 as the median. Here the median and the mode coincide.

The median and the mode constitute an average which is much more readily found than the mathematical average, which would be arrived at by a long computation in addition and division.

In the table above it will be seen that 3 groups of girls (equaling 16 girls) made no score or a negative one, while the best group (3 girls) made a score of 8 times that of the poorest group which scored, and nearly 3 times that of the median.

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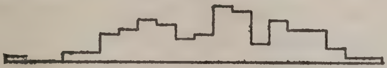
[1] Thorndike, E. L., *Principles of Teaching, Based on Psychology*, page 73 ff. (A. G. Seiler, New York; 1906).

[2] *Ibid.*, page 74.

Another graph taken from the same source represents the abilities of fourth-grade boys in spelling.



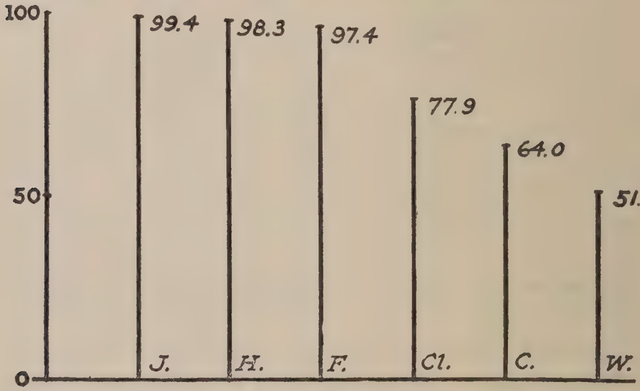
Per Cent of Words Spelled Correctly	Number of Boys
20 to 23	1
24 to 27	0
28 to 31	0
32 to 35	2
36 to 39	2
40 to 43	6
44 to 47	7
48 to 51	9
52 to 55	8
56 to 59	5
60 to 63	6
64 to 67	12
68 to 71	11
72 to 75	4
76 to 79	9
80 to 83	7
84 to 87	7
88 to 91	3
92 to 95	1
96 to 99	1

In this case the median is 56 to 60, the mode 64, and the ability of the best group of 1 is only 4½ times as great as that of the poorest group.

Numerous similar measurements of this kind performed on thousands of school children with reference to a dozen or more different traits have established these facts as constant. The teacher should therefore consider his class in this light and seek to adapt his instruction, and the difficulty and amount of work, accordingly.

An interesting study for those so inclined is to measure their classes in respect to some ability, by means of careful tests, and to plot it out as in the graphs shown above. The best way to make graphs is to plot them on graph or square-ruled paper. This graph will bring the facts more clearly before teacher and administration, and may also be used to stimulate the work of the class.

The following graph shows the abilities of 6 boys in a beginning class to reproduce, in writing, a passage containing 100 words of German which they had prepared for oral work. One per cent was deducted for each word omitted, four tenths of 1 per cent for each case of wrong accidence, and one tenth of 1 per cent for each misspelling. It will be seen that even this small select class fell into two groups, the better of which did 1½ times better than the poorer. The method of marking the test is also of interest to language teachers.



NOTE. The initials on the base line stand for the names of the boys.

Various plans for providing for these differences have been worked out. The Pueblo plan of doing away with all simultaneous class instruction was originated at the end of the eighties of the nineteenth century in Pueblo, Colorado. Under this plan the child's school day is taken up by study. There are only a few recitations. As reported by Mr. Search,[1] the inventor of the plan, the brightest pupils did up to 3½ times as much work as the poorest. The plan was later tried in numerous other places.[1]

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[1] Search, P. W., *An Ideal School* (D. Appleton & Co., New York; 1901).

The scheme called the Batavia plan was worked out at Batavia, New York, and consists of using part of the time formerly given to class recitations for supervised study periods for each student. During these periods the teacher gives his time to each student in turn or to such as are particularly in need of help, aiding them by suggestion, etc., or by mapping out work for those who have completed the assignment.[2]

Another plan which has sprung up in various places is the group plan. The class is divided into two or more groups according to the capacities of the individuals. Generally a student leader is appointed for each section. The teacher divides his time between the sections. The better sections do additional work.

This plan has the advantage that the bright students can do more work, and that the poor ones can do theirs more thoroughly than if they had to keep up with the better pupils. A beneficial spirit of competition is also engendered.

A fourth plan is to conduct the class as a whole but to work out carefully additional assignments in each chapter, or subject, for the brighter pupils, who are also excused, at times, from the class recitation when it is thought that they do not need it. In such cases they are assigned work to be done in another room, which is to be reported on later in the class.

Experiments in adapting modern-language instruction to individual capacities have also been made, or are now in progress. These will be reported in these pages. And, of course, numerous teachers are in the habit of providing extra work for bright pupils. However, the task of working out definite procedures which any well-equipped teacher can put into operation in his classroom needs to be pursued further.

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[1] On the Pueblo plan, see also Swift, E. J., *Mind in the Making* (Charles Scribner's Sons, New York; 1908); also *Educational Review*, 7: 154–170, 1894.

[2] Kennedy, J., "The Batavia Plan after Fourteen Years of Trial," *Elementary School Teacher*, 12: 449–459, 1912.

Deihl[1] has reported on an experiment in composition work in first- and second-year French and first-year German in the University of Wisconsin High School. The plan was to have a standard assignment for all students; viz., to go on with the following exercise of the book whenever the assignment for the day had been covered. This provided for extra assignments for the bright pupils. Further, copying of the work done at home, or during study periods, was done during the class period, when the student was able to call on the teacher for any needed help. Further, the teacher did the correcting of the work during the class periods, each student in turn bringing his book to the teacher's desk. This again afforded the individual personal attention. The results were highly satisfactory. When any student had finished the amount of writing which was to be done, he was allowed to begin extensive reading. Considerable of this was done, even in the first-year class, while "several second-year pupils read as much as 600 pages extra, 300 of which were reported on to the teacher. . . . The poorest read about 40 pages extra. . . . It will not work well in classes of more than 15 or 16 pupils, because of the volume of work turned out."

In a first-year German class a similar experiment was tried. Ten minutes daily were devoted to writing. An additional assignment — extra paragraphs of the grammar being used — was indicated on the board every day. When a student had finished the regular assignment, he went on to do the extra work.

In this class the correcting was done by the teacher, who passed from seat to seat during the writing period, correcting as much of the work as possible. The rest was done by the teacher outside of the class period.

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[1] Deihl, J. D., "Individual Differences and Notebook Work in Modern Foreign Languages," *Modern Language Journal*, 1 : 52–59.

As to the results the writer remarks: "It will readily be seen that while some pupils did only the required minimum, others would do a large part or all of the extra exercises as well, thus getting an extra amount of practice."

Deihl adds further that this plan can be operated with sections of large size as well, and that writing in this way, under the teacher's eye, does away with dishonest work.

Beginning with the school year 1916–17, Handschin, Miami University, used the group plan in second- and third-year German. This experiment has not heretofore been reported. It proved very satisfactory and has since been used regularly in these classes after the opening 4 to 6 weeks of the school year. The plan is to divide the class into 2 sections according to abilities. At first 3 sections were tried, but it was found impracticable to supervise 3 groups properly.

There is a standard assignment for the whole class: so much reading, so much writing. To make this assignment, with the necessary development exercises, the sections are called together for whatever portion of the period is found necessary, and the teacher conducts this work.

For the rest of the time, the sections sit in separate parts of the room, where they will not hear or otherwise be disturbed by each other. The slow section does the standard assignment, the fast section has an additional assignment of 5 or 10 or 15 pages of reading in an additional text. This is extensive reading, which they are instructed to read over twice at least, in order to learn the vocabulary and to be able to retell it in the foreign language or answer questions on the content or perform one of the other common exercises.

When the students in this section have finished the regular assignment, they begin the retelling of the contents of their extra assignment.

Each group has a leader. The best students in the class are chosen for these two positions, but they must have also some pedagogical and executive ability. Most classes contain the necessary material for this. The teacher must watch his leaders closely, take notes on their procedures, hand them a transcript (carbon copy) of these at the end of the hour, and call their attention to faulty pedagogical procedure. For instance: faulty questioning, calling on the person first and stating the question later, too easy or too difficult questions, allowing one pupil to recite too long, allowing mistakes in grammar to pass uncorrected, telling the form when only directions for finding the form should be given, not dividing the work properly between board and seat work (that is, some should be given a translation of a hard passage at the board, others should be sent to the board to write what another has just recited, another sent to correct a translation, while another is retelling in his seat, etc.).

The procedures in the two sections are not quite alike. The slow section will need more translation. This can be done partly at the board and students of the fast section sent to correct it.

The leaders will need to be retained throughout the year. It is too much work to train new ones. They may sometimes be interchanged at the end of a semester between the fast and the slow section.

Students should be promoted from the slow to the fast section when they deserve it. Demotions occasionally (very rarely) need also to be made.

The leader is responsible for conducting the recitation of his group, but the teacher will indicate to him clearly just what shall be done in each kind of work. For instance, on reading days he will have a certain standard procedure: so much translation of the difficult passages, if any, which students desire to have translated; then question-and-answer method; then the written or oral exercises based on the reading. Thus, barring changes which the teacher will indicate to the leader at the beginning of the hour, the leader knows what to do and how much time to allow for each exercise.

For composition days there will be a similar standard procedure, so that the leader knows just what to do, unless the teacher indicates a change from the regular program for that day.

If for any reason special drills, or work too difficult for the leaders, become necessary, the teacher can take the whole class for an hour himself.

The teacher divides his time between the two groups, keeps his eye on the board work, sits as a listener and critic or as the teacher, now with one group, now with the other. If oral work is arranged for a certain time of the hour in each group, he can be with each section when that particular work is performed.

In 1916–17 the fast section of third-year German read 300 pages extra, and moreover there was a distinctly higher order of work in that section than in the other. In the second-year class the amount of extra reading was less, but still considerable. One of the leaders in this class was unable to conduct certain kinds of work satisfactorily, hence the class had at times to be conducted as a whole.

Interest was keener under this plan. Four promotions were made during the year. Similar results have been obtained in classes since then.

The plan can be varied to suit other conditions and to include other kinds of work. For instance, a leader may read a dictation exercise to one section, while the teacher is teaching the other. Instead of extra reading, writing may be done. Developing new material, however, should be done by the teacher, as should also all directions for study be given by the teacher. This plan is recommended to be introduced with caution and only in classes in which good leaders can be found; with caution, because every teacher needs to feel his way carefully with any new plan. Visitors in the classes were unanimously enthusiastic over its working. Whether it will succeed in high school is still to be shown.

The special-assignment plan, also, is being used by numerous modern-language teachers. This should become universal. It is not difficult in modern-language work. Extra reading assignments especially are easy to administer. They may be reported to the class in the foreign language if the student is able and willing, otherwise in English to the teacher, or to the class. Bright students should always be kept occupied in this way.

Outside reading may also be assigned to practically all members of the class. In Mr. H's classes, in college, the following amounts were done in 1922–23: In first-year classes an average of over 70 pages, while some did over 200 pages; in second-year classes an average of over 80 pages. Only one member of the second-year classes was excused from this reading.

SUPERVISED STUDY

The chief points in favor of supervised study may be set down as follows: (1) It is bound up irrevocably with the problem of individual differences, and that this is a problem which must be met, hardly any one will dispute. The plans for providing for individual differences entail as much work as any of the schemes for supervised study now in use. (2) The inefficiency of the present system of home study coupled with the present scheme of study in study hall, or during vacant hours, is shown by the prevailing high percentage of repeaters and failures. (3) The teacher is the only person able to give the proper kind of help, and the conditions in the schoolroom are most favorable to study and cannot be duplicated elsewhere.

The arguments against it are: (1) Pupils should learn to solve their own problems, and thus really learn to think. (2) It puts an added burden on the teacher, at least in the number of hours.

That the present system of study is inefficient is a fact attested by many careful and thorough studies into which we cannot go here. It has been shown that the student does not find sufficient time because of the stress and distractions of modern life; that the conditions in the majority of homes are unhygienic for study purposes; that parents and elders are often persuaded to give help, and that such help is often given unwisely, or that, all help failing, the student flounders, often to no avail, to help himself; that the present system of study hall also is not efficient for various reasons; on the other hand, a teacher can give eminent aid in the subject of his specialty, if a certain time and place are set aside for this, when the entire group, or class, assemble to do their studying.

On the other hand, the arguments against supervised study do not hold, since demonstrably better results are being produced by supervised study than by the old plan.

Besides, it has often been urged by those who have given this subject most careful study that if supervised study is introduced the teacher must be relieved from some of the work of correcting papers and of conference hours.[1] In addition, it should be made the basis of salary increase, for the reason that it means heightened efficiency, and for this bonuses are paid in the industrial world. Schemes which include lengthening the school period to 70 or more minutes call for an increase in teaching force, as may be seen by reading up the accounts of supervised study in various schools. But schools employing the 60-minute period — at present the most numerous — are proving equally efficient. This should be equally valuable in dollars and cents, even though this means increasing salaries instead of employing additional instructors.

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[1] Hall-Quest, A. L., *Supervised Study* (The Macmillan Company, New York; 1917).

By supervised study we mean here *study*, not *recitation*, in the school building, under the care of the regular instructor — not of a study coach or unassigned teacher — under some plan of distributed periods, or partial periods. There are numerous schemes of dividing the periods, the principal ones in use being: (1) weekly supervised study; (De Kalb, Illinois), 5 minutes being taken off each period daily, amounting to a total of 30 minutes daily (this period is used alternately, once a week, by the various branches of study); (2) alternate daily extra period; (3) continuous divided study period; (4) lengthened divided study period. (5) A certain part of the students' study periods is supervised, the time being gained by turning a recitation period into a study period.

Thus under scheme 2, a daily extra period being added to the school day, it is a perfectly easy plan to have this period used alternately by the various studies. This plan is best adapted to the smaller schools where the range of studies is limited. It means only a slight lengthening of the school day, since it involves an extra period *for only one branch* each day. It is not as productive as other schemes, since the supervised study periods in any one branch come too seldom.

Scheme 3, the continuous divided study period, has the advantage of providing a study period to follow each recitation — although a short one — without lengthening the school day. This can be operated without difficulty in any school.

Scheme 4, which adds a period, or more, and divides the lengthened periods between recitation and study, is producing excellent results. It presupposes lengthening the teacher's school day, or adding members to the staff of instructors.

Scheme 5 is being operated successfully also.[1]

The most popular of these schemes is at present the 60-minute period, divided 40–20 between recitation and supervised study, although a considerable number of prominent schools are using 70-, 80-, and even 90-minute periods, divided equally, generally, between recitation and study.[2]

The technique may therefore be varied to suit circumstances and conditions, but the most desirable schemes are those which require the teacher to spend all of his time in contact with his own classes.

The following references will put the teacher in contact with the most important literature on the subject:

1. Breslich, E. R., *Supervised Study as a Means of Providing Supplementary Individual Instruction* (Thirteenth Year Book of the National Society for the Study of Education), pages 32–72. The University of Chicago Press, 1914.

2. Reavis, W. C., "Factors That Determine the Habits of Study in Grade Pupils," *Elementary School Teacher*, 12 : 71–81 (1911). (Results of home study measured.)

3. Caldwell, O. W., "The Laboratory Method and High School Efficiency," *Popular Science Monthly*, 72 : 243–51 (1913). Wiener, W., "Home Study Reform," *School Review*, 20 : 526–31 (1912). (Report on results of using divided 60-minute period, one half of it for supervised study.) Cole, T. R., "One Year of Supervised Study," *School Review*, 25 : 331–35 (1917). Clerk, F. E., "The Arlington Plan of Grouping Pupils According to Ability in the Arlington High School," *School Review*, 25 : 26–47 (1917). Roberts, Alexander C., "Supervised Study in the Everett High School," *School Review*, 24 : 735–45. Erickson, John E., "The Result of Supervised Study in the Houghton, Michigan, High School," *School Review*, 24 : 752–58. (Report on success of 80-minute divided period.) Heck, W. H., "Correlation between Amount of Home Study and Class Marks," *School Review*, 24 : 533–49 (1916). Allen,

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[1] Hall-Quest, *op. cit.*, page 99.

[2] Proctor, W. M., "Supervised Study on the Pacific Coast," *School and Society*, 6 : 326–328, 1917. (This article contains the most inclusive tabulations of supervised study available.)

I. M., "Experiments in Supervised Study," *School Review*, 25 : 398–412 (1917). (Report on lengthened divided period and laboratory-recitation plan of supervised study.) Hughes, C. C., "Supervised Study," *Education*, 38 : 722–23 (1916). Mason, W. L., "A New System of Supervised Study," *Education*, 38 : 117–21 (1917). (Report on plan of divided periods [40–20] with some astonishing results.) Downing, E. R., "Supervised Study and the Science Laboratory," *School Review*, 25 : 646–51 (1917). (Points out that laboratory work in science is supervised study, and calls attention to its strong points and dangers in tending to stereotyped forms.)

A questionnaire sent to high-school teachers in Illinois showed 209 willing to try supervised study. Sixty were unwilling, while 46 did not answer clearly and may, in the opinion of the persons sending out the questionnaire, be counted part for, part against, the plan.

At Joliet, where the plan has been in operation for several years, the teachers are reported as being unwilling to return to the old plan.[1]

The successful operation of some such scheme of supervised study will depend upon the attitude of the teacher toward it. Modern-language teachers especially should recognize the importance of this movement for their work.

If such a scheme does not obtain in a school, as a whole, it may be desirable for the modern-language teacher to get the superintendent to agree to some special arrangement, whereby the modern-language pupils may spend a portion of the recitation period in directed study. Or the modern-language pupils may be won to prepare their modern-language lesson during their study period, spent in the general assembly room under the care of the modern-language teacher.

If none of these plans is desirable, or feasible, then all efforts should be made to direct home study most efficiently. For this purpose the teacher should set about learning the best methods of directing pupils to study. A number of valuable books for this purpose are mentioned later. The teacher should, further, study the particular needs of his students and frame his directions accordingly. The problem of scientific directions for modern-language study has not yet been thoroughly solved. Many of the suggestions given in the references in this chapter are applicable to modern-language study also.

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[1] University of Illinois Bulletin XIII, No. 21, page 301, 1916.

We may presume that every teacher has an opinion on supervised study, either favorable or unfavorable, in accordance, to some extent, with his experience in certain concrete situations, and thus it may not be necessary, or it may be impossible, to persuade individuals as to the desirability of setting in motion a plan of supervised study on a large scale. However, we are sure of one thing, namely, that every one is *interested* in supervised study, for the reason that it is here, and it is going to be more common as time goes on.

In discussing supervised study we must differentiate between supervised study and giving directions how to study.

> To teach pupils how to study is time well spent. However, teaching pupils how to study is not supervised study. Supervised study will often reveal among other things the need of instruction in how to study.[1]

Supervising study means seeing to it that the pupil knows what is wanted of him, understands the problem, is attacking the work in the right way, is using his materials and the helps efficiently, is really working as hard as he can, and not dawdling away time on non-essentials, is doing his notebook work neatly, so that it will not need to be redone later in another notebook, is employing hygienic postures, etc.

It will be noted that this means working *with*, not *for*, the student. And here some teachers fail in this work. This is an attitude hard to acquire by a teacher who has long been used to the old type of recitation. He needs often to get a new attitude toward the pupil, to get the pupil's confidence, to come off the high horse, to be a friend instead of an autocrat, to find out what the real trouble is, and then not to remove it, but to teach the pupil how to remove it.

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[1] Brown, H. G., "Classroom Methods and Devices," *Elementary School Journal*, 16 : 180, 1916.

This is a big job, and we may as well recognize first as last that broad sympathy, big-heartedness, is the first requisite. It is not taxing work; at least, it need not be more so than the ordinary classroom work. That it is more pleasurable will, I think, be attested by most, if not all, who have tried it. It brings the gratitude of pupils, at all events, and that should be something to the idealist.

Giving directions how to study calls for more expert preparation. And it seems, from numerous reports, that here some teachers are making a mistake, when they think that supervised study means lecturing on methods of study. Directions how to study certainly have their place, but they must be concrete, brief, definite, and reiterated until the majority of the class have adopted them. Such directions as, "Now concentrate your minds on the lesson," or explaining abstruse psychological theory of the factors of study are more confusing to the average child than useful.

Since, in college, setting periods aside for supervised study will probably not be practicable, paying attention to methods of studying will probably be the college's answer to this call for supervised study. And, then, we must recognize that for all teachers in the graded and high schools, as well as in institutions of higher learning, it will always be desirable to give directions how to study.

Let us therefore consider the matter briefly. Many directions as to schemes for efficient note-taking, topic-making, etc., which are given in books for studies in general will be found applicable to our study, also, and teachers are hereby referred to a few such works.[1]

In addition some special problems in supervising modern-language study must be considered here.

The pupil's first difficulty in point of time is memorizing the foreign words. The method of overcoming this most economically and effectively is by having him memorize his words in context always, and not through the eye alone. All new words should also, as far as possible, be presented to him first through the ear. He will then be forced to use it, for he is, in nine cases out of ten, defective in aural perception. He will consequently be disinclined to use his ear. It is too difficult; he is accustomed to get words through the eye.

We must therefore explain to him that it is nevertheless advantageous to learn words first through the ear, because there are four ways of learning linguistic forms: by ear, eye, mouth, and hand. It is thought that when we get words by seeing them, some sort of groove is cut in our nervous tissue, thus leaving an impression. The visualizers in the class have been getting language in this way. That has become habitual with them — hence, for them, easier. But getting words by way of the ear also makes impressions, and additional impressions make for surer retention. This is really a much easier and surer way of learning, although at first it seems hard.

Now in learning lessons many pupils pronounce only mentally. But if circumstances allow, all matter studied should be pronounced aloud. It will be noted that this schools both ear and vocal organs. Supervised study, of course, prohibits this, and for this reason some of the study in modern language should be done at home, where oral pronunciation is possible. In classroom study, also, students must be advised always to pronounce the words by using the vocal organs, even though speaking aloud is not allowable. Many pupils do this naturally because they are of the motor type; others should be encouraged to form the habit.

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[1] Cf., for instance, Hall-Quest, *op. cit.*, Chapters 7 and 8; also Parker, *Methods of Study in High School* (Ginn & Co., Boston; 1915).

To spatialize words is also a great help in remembering them. This can be done in many cases — if not by actually walking about in the room, touching and simultaneously naming objects, then by thinking of the objects as being in different places: the eraser at the board, the hat on a man's head. Verbs should be thought of as accompanied by their proper movement, or gesture. The following five means also aid spatialization: (1) Clear thinking out of the basal meaning of words. For instance, English *imbecile* is not a mere aggregation of letters meaning a weak person, but, coming from Latin *in bacillo*, means (one) leaning on a staff for support. Thus the word stands out visually and full of meaning and is not merely a collection of letters to be held in the mind by main force. Such German words as *Gebrechen*, *erfahren*, or French *inclination*, *maintenant*, or Spanish *ojeador*, *manumitir*, should each take definite shape and standing. The student should be given the underlying picture and should be encouraged to study other words similarly, and always to get close to the basal meanings of words. If he does this, the additional associations will prevent the words from fading from memory. This way of learning words also adds an æsthetic pleasure unknown to the mere memorizer of aggregations of letters. (2) Another means of remembering words is by material association; i.e., the student must be taught to associate words with the objects which they name, whenever possible. Too many students associate the foreign word with the English word only, but experiments have shown that the association formed with the material object or a picture is stronger. (See Chapter I.) (3) Associating the word with movements or gestures has already been mentioned under spatialization above. Another means is forming associations with the opposite (antonym), or with things similar (synonyms), or with things contiguous (derivative groups). These have already been treated in Chapter V. The value of such associations should now be impressed upon the student who has difficulty in remembering words. (4) Some students will remember better when they write the words; therefore written exercises must be prescribed, and their value for this particular thing emphasized. Attention should also be called to the fact that all the exercises prescribed are given in order to reduce the work of learning. (5) Diagrams of word groups and functions also serve spatialization. Here it is important that the diagram should never be changed.

At a later stage in the course, still other devices for remembering words most economically must be introduced. When reading texts, for instance, words not known must be looked up in the vocabulary. To facilitate this, an index to the vocabulary should be cut with a pair of shears, and, in case of more bulky dictionaries, with a semicircular gouge, to be had in any manual-training shop. The meanings should next be written at the bottom of the page, and both the foreign word and the meaning enumerated. This saves looking up the word again when reviewing. When reviewing, the meanings at the bottom of the page should be covered up, and the memory taxed. Only as a last resort should the meanings be read.

Some pupils make the mistake of working unintermittently at an assignment until weariness sets in. A plan more in keeping with the laws of memory is to stop before fatigue sets in, but to recur to it several times for review, and once shortly before coming to the recitation the next day. However, a student should be able to study 45 minutes at a stretch, as the supervised study periods require.

The pupil should be taught to remember always that there are many associations which can be formed with words, as indicated in the preceding paragraphs, and that he will do well to keep a list of these before him if necessary and select the one which fits most snugly in each case.

A second point of difficulty which many students meet is in remembering inflectional forms. To remedy this the teacher must take some time to give the class a clear understanding of the functions of the different parts of sentences. Most high-school and college students have very hazy notions about the functions of words in sentences. Often they do not even understand the terms. These will have to be explained and learned. This will quite necessarily be done in English, gradually, of course, as they are needed, or as they occur in the grammar which is being used. Next, the phenomena must be thoroughly drilled by live exercises. In this the teacher will need to specialize. Many such direct-method drills are indicated in Chapters VI and IX.

The student must be made to see the importance of these drills. He must be told that he can never learn to read, nor to understand, fluent speech before he has memorized many such phrases containing functional forms. We cannot memorize all the words of a language. But we can understand and can speak with a relatively small vocabulary, provided we know the necessary functional forms; for instance: *à la deuxième, il y a deux, il échappera, für alle, liebte, er versieht sich mit, a poco rato, tener razon.*

Sentences, or secondary matter, are built up of such primary forms, which can be used in a thousand different settings. Hence the importance of memorizing these once for all.

In teaching such forms, the teacher must be sure to provide ample iterative use for each form at the time it is introduced and must make sure that it recurs again. This is, of course, difficult unless we take a review of the preceding lesson day by day, as we should.

The trouble in these cases where inflectional forms cannot be readily recognized is that there was not adequate drill in primary matter earlier in the course. Some teachers rely too much upon unconscious assimilation to learn functional forms. This is a very proper auxiliary, but nothing will take the place of stiff, continued drill, and this must form a part of the work throughout the elementary and intermediate stage.

A third difficulty is inability to cover large assignments of reading. The remedy is to excuse such a person for a time from retelling or answering in the foreign language, substituting therefor telling the contents in English, or writing it at the board, or on paper. This will relieve him of part of the work and allow him to concentrate upon getting the meanings. His difficulty probably is that he does not know enough words. The means for remembering words suggested above would therefore apply here also. It may be that he does not know the functional values. In that case grammar drill is to be prescribed. The trouble should be ascertained by test and the proper remedy applied. If it cannot be done in class, because he stands alone in his needs, then a private coach is to be prescribed for him. If his trouble is too slight vocabulary, we must make plain to him that merely to recognize words in context is an easy task if he employs the devices we have prescribed above, and that, if he will work faithfully at this for a dozen assignments, things will go much better. This almost invariably does the work.

A further student's difficulty is that he cannot understand the fluent speech of the class, and especially that of the teacher. This trouble is often encountered at the beginning of the term by persons trained under another master, perhaps by another method. The remedy is to call his attention to the fact that the speech is really not so fast as it seems to him and that he cannot understand it merely because he has not had enough practice in what may be called unconscious assimilation. Listening attentively to teacher and class will provide this. A further point in the remedy is to excuse him from speaking, as long as necessary. We may make plain to him that the basic requirement in the work is that he be able to get the sense from the text, be able to translate it if called upon to do so, that he do the assigned writing, and that he study sufficiently to master the vocabulary. The power to understand will come by listening, by speaking his lessons aloud, as he prepares them, and by attempting answers to easy questions which we should gradually begin to ask him in recitation. To work up to this he should be asked to speak and write answers to the questions now found appended to numerous texts. His daily work can be tested by these answers and by translation, at the board if necessary. The simplest questions concerning the content of an assignment may now be put to him orally, and as his power to answer increases, these should be made harder until they are comparable to those asked of the rest of the class. By this time his difficulty in understanding will, in most cases, have disappeared.

Not being able to express oneself in the foreign language is a still more common complaint. This also is heard oftenest on the part of students who have been trained by an indirect method, although most average and poor students have this trouble. The difficulty arises from trying to express things which require a greater vocabulary than the student possesses, or which require a fluency in the use of functional forms which is beyond him. The mistake is often the teacher's, since the student has been rushed ahead, beyond his ability to do the work well. Here the value of the fast and slow sections becomes especially evident. Very often teachers make the mistake of allowing undue difficulty to be thrust upon the class without proper gradual approach and without sufficient drill in all new forms and reading matter. A good practical rule is: If the average student does not speak 75 per cent correctly, simpler matter should be introduced at once. If the gradation has been proper, a higher per cent should be spoken correctly, say 90. If less than 75 per cent is spoken correctly, there is about as much harm being done as good, since it requires more effort to unlearn bad forms than to learn correct ones.

Another cause of this difficulty is that his course has not included sufficient exercise in oral reproduction. In this case the teacher must devote more time to oral exercises of this sort for the whole class, if a majority are in need of it, or in one of the sections, if he can conduct his class on the group plan, putting those in need of more elementary oral work in one section by themselves.

If only one or several individuals are in need of this, a private coach must be provided, whose duty it will be to go over the advance lesson with them, using principally the question-and-answer method — in the foreign language, of course.

In connection with this whole subject of supervised study we must bear in mind that the difficulty of learning a language is in many cases not so great as the unlearning of incorrect forms. The teacher lightens his labor greatly by being careful to forestall mistakes which it would require more labor to undo than it would have required originally to learn correctly.

Teachers in all branches are continually confronted by this task of correcting wrong thinking and bad habits. The prime object of supervised study is to prevent these. To do this, we may need to go slower and to make things easy. Many teachers are afraid of making things too easy. This springs from a most laudable desire to keep students properly busy. But there is another side to the matter. We must be sure to give them plenty of work, but to give it to them so that they know how to do it correctly, and most economically. Letting the pupil flounder is good, after the most scientific instructions have been given him as to how to swim, and after he has been shown how.

There is one thing which will come out of supervised study with certainty: our teachers will learn to make more intelligent and intelligible assignments.

In assigning a lesson the exact amount must be stated definitely and students must be taught to write down the assignment carefully, if necessary. Next, the nature of the work to be done must be indicated clearly. Illustrations of each kind of work called for should be worked out — with aid of the class — and ample time for questions should be given. Questions should be invited and courted.

More still, giving directions how to study will teach us that, in most subjects, it should not be merely an assignment but a development lesson, which may take half of the period, or more — a development lesson in which not only every step must be made clear but several typical problems must be worked out. To do this the student must be shown what the nature of the problem is, what data are necessary to its solution, and where in his book(s) he will find the necessary helps. In short, the student's work consists in solving problems after the model of those solved by the teacher, and the class should solve several such problems in the class during the development lesson. This will show up the student's difficulties at once, and also the way toward removing them.

Often the teacher has not studied the book thoroughly and does not know of its peculiar arrangement and its typographical errors. If he makes the proper preparation to direct the student's study in every detail, he will, perforce, get acquainted with the book, as well as the student's manner of working. But will this not increase the teacher's work? Perhaps. However, the most tedious and aggravating work, that of correcting ingrained bad forms, is done away with, largely, by this preventive work. It opens up also a new and interesting realm, a field for all of the teacher's ingenuity, and one which will bring him the sincere gratitude of his students.

HANDY LIST OF TEACHING DEVICES

1. Try Deihl's plan for providing extra work in composition for the brighter pupils.
2. Try dividing and conducting a class in two sections.
3. Try some plan of supervised study, but only after consultation with your superior officer and after working out the plan carefully.
4. Give to your class instruction in the best methods of studying the various kinds of work you assign.
5. Analyze the difficulties of your students. Diagnose each individual case and give him your best counsel as to how to improve his work.

Problems

Make a graph of any phenomena concerning which you may have data, and arrange this material so as to illustrate the median and the mode.

Write an exposition of what are called types of learners, or learning types. Cf. Meumann, *The Psychology of Learning*, pages 179–230.

How would you discover the learners of various types in a class? Test out a few persons and establish their types. (See also Chapter I.)

CHAPTER THIRTEEN

Reviews, Tests, and Examinations

The aims in reviews, tests, and examinations are in part the same as the aims in the course as a whole. These subjects might therefore be treated under the various chapters on reading, oral work, and grammar, and to some slight extent this has been done. However, there are certain general considerations to be discussed which makes it desirable to treat reviews and tests in a chapter by themselves.

REVIEWS

The first reason for reviews is that there are certain general principles which cannot be brought out when the subject is being developed, but which must be understood and learned when, in the review, a bird's-eye view becomes possible, as, for instance, in reading: the general significance of the story or text, the style, the matter as a whole, the character portrayal, and the outline of plot and subplot.

In elementary-language work there must, of course, be considerable repetition, but, in addition, the principles and rules will be stressed, whereas originally the concrete phenomena, the forms, received most attention.

A second reason is found in the nature of memory, which is most retentive when impressions are repeated. But repetition of identical matter in identical form will not do, because memory works well only when interest is present. There can be little interest in bare repetitions, in fact, no primitive interest, but only derived interest — that is, interest because the learner thinks it is useful for some ulterior end.

What form of review is then the best? What interests us in the old is the new. The matter must be shown in new aspects; new questions concerning it must be aroused. We know that facts and principles are best learned when they are viewed from various viewpoints, in their various phases and meanings.

Here the old style of review work failed. It was drudgery. It meant an attempt to fix facts by repetitions purely, and hence without primitive interest.

In our language work, especially if done by the direct method, we have an excellent opportunity of varying the work in reviews by varying the appeal. If originally the appeal is made predominantly to the ear, it may in review be made predominantly to the eye, or reproduction through the hand and vocal organs may be made more of.

The chief value of reviews lies in the necessity of the student's reorganizing the entire material. All matter contained in a given unit of instruction should therefore also be contained in its review. To be sure, not all of the data need be touched, but all that is significant for the general principles to be fixed by the review. And if there are practical phases of the subject, these should now be brought out in full, so that the reorganization of the material may be made with a view to its use-value.

However, before discussing the periodic review, it is necessary to point out the importance of the daily review. This is important as supplying, with very little loss of time, an additional reworking of the lesson of the preceding day. No matter how often the student may have gone over the assignment, the review, after the matter has been illuminated in class, is much more valuable because he has now begun to get hold of principles.

Teachers who do not use the daily review are making a mistake. Ten minutes at the beginning of the period is well invested in this way. Soon the class will prepare for the review as thoroughly as for the advance assignment. Even at the end of the period, many make a practice of having the matter treated during the hour summarized in a minute or two, and in some topics this is certainly highly desirable.

Although very important, the daily review will not make the periodic one unnecessary. In the periodic review, memory is tested after a considerable interim. Facts have also had time to "set." The concrete data have been multiplied to such an extent that the learner has grasped the general ideas, or is ready for them.

No definite times can be set for such review. Different subjects require different treatment in this matter. The general rule should be that as soon as the class seems to be losing its grip on the mass of detail, or strength to assimilate new matter seems on the wane, or it is time to introduce some general principle toward which the class has been working, then a review is in place.

As a general device for review work the topical outline must be mentioned. Such an outline may be assigned as home work for the class, but should be gone over in class to make sure that it is clear and sufficiently inclusive.

To make the further suggestions concrete, let us take them up in connection with several kinds of work which will be taught in modern-language classes.

Grammar. In elementary grammar review it will be a question predominantly of accidence. Articles can be reviewed easily by having students give names of things in the schoolroom, on charts, pictures, etc., always with the article, definite or indefinite. Nouns can be reviewed also by collecting them under topical heads, as house, yard, country, sea, village, city, woods. Occasionally the principal parts of the nouns should also be given.

Adjectives may be reviewed by a person in Section I using an adjective attributively in a sentence, a person in Section II replying by using the same predicatively.

Sectioning the class will be useful also to review pronouns.

Section I is addressed by intimate pronoun. Section II by third person, singular and plural, while the instructor functions as first person, singular, and in case of German, as third person plural (polite form). For instance, the instructor, pointing to one person of Section I, says: *Ich sehe* ——. The class supplies *dich.* To two persons of this group, and the class supplies *euch*, etc. Or, after a model has been given, he may merely point to the persons and the class will supply the sentences.

Relative pronouns may be drilled by the instructor's giving a principal clause and calling on a student to supply a modifying relative clause. By following out a scheme he can elicit all forms of the pronouns and numerous examples of each in this way. Such exercises should now go far faster and with less help by the teacher than originally.

The section plan mentioned above can be used advantageously also for reviewing verbs and reflexive pronouns. For example, a model sentence is given: *Je la verrai.* Then the teacher merely needs to point to one of Section I to elicit the sentence: *Tu la verras;* to two of this section to get the sentence *Vous la verrez.* To drill reflexive pronouns he points to himself: *Je me lève*, and *Vous vous levez.* Pointing to a person of Section I: *Il* (*elle*) *se lève*, etc.

Many other devices mentioned in Chapter X will lend themselves readily to review work. The students should supply the model sentences themselves and difficulties should be multiplied. For instance, sentences should include not only the inflectional forms but word order and points of syntax as well.

Syntax. The study of syntax during the original study, generally, is more or less unconscious, that is, imitative. In review it may be made more a conscious process. This can be done partly by now translating English sentences into the foreign language. This work, although contained in nearly all of our grammars, should not be done originally — i.e., on the first working over of the material — and some will not care to do it even in review. In any case, it is well in the review to approach some matters in the deductive way and to have the principles formulated first.

The exercises contained in the grammar may be run through rapidly, multiplying the difficulties somewhat, and the teacher will do well to provide additional exercises. These may be written in the book and thus preserved from year to year. Syntactical exercises, originally treated only orally, may now be written out, which will help to fix the principles.

Moreover, in reviews at the end of weeks or months, as much ground should be covered in an hour as was originally covered in a week, or weeks; all of which will serve to give that bird's-eye perspective which is one of the prime objects in reviews. Now the general principles will stand out, but grounded firmly upon the broad foundation of numerous examples, which are functioning as habit, ready to be applied at any time.

Reading. In reading texts, also, the daily review must be a standard procedure, a part of the assignment which no student will slight, because it is sure to be called for in some form. It may take the form of retelling, or rewriting at the board. Originally, the recitation consisted perhaps of question and answer, of work on vocabulary, etc., and certainly in the original recitation a number in the class were unable to tell the contents, or were able to tell it only imperfectly or haltingly. Now the next day, in the review, we may expect, and we get, more fluency, as well as accuracy.

Dialoguizing, also, may be used to review reading in stories.

For daily review of vocabulary various means mentioned in Chapter V may be used, also.

For reviewing the syntax in connection with the reading lesson, a good procedure is to use the paraphrases now commonly printed in reading texts, or, if none such are contained in the text used, mutations of the text may be planned by the teacher for this purpose. Another procedure, used in European schools, and found valuable also in American classrooms, is to station a good student, or two if desirable, at the board at the side or back of the room, while another is retelling; the one at the board then notes down the mistakes in sentence structure. If desirable, mistakes of pronunciation, form, and vocabulary may also be noted, each in a separate caption.

When the speaker has finished, his mistakes may be noted by the class, and the correct forms substituted.

In reviewing, after a reading text has been completed, the entire text should be reread swiftly. Stimulating questions to be considered during this reading are: How fast can you read the text now compared with the rate of the first reading? For instance, during the first reading, 3 pages an hour was the usual rate; on review, 10 or more pages are covered. What do you think as to the probability of the plot? Of the validity and usefulness of the ideas expressed? What do you think of one or more of the principal characters (which are to be designated)? What mood or what philosophy does the story, or text, express? Such questions will pique the interest and set students to thinking about the value of works of literature in general.

Written work. The review of work in writing, done in connection with the grammar or reading text, need not be undertaken every day by the whole class, although the whole class may be sent to the board for a few minutes, if desirable. Written work can be reviewed in connection with the short texts, now prevalently connected discourse, contained in grammars or in connection with reading texts. The same principles will apply here as in reviewing reading or syntax.

Series. The daily review may extend to the series. But here the case is different. The lesson is taught thoroughly one day and recited on the next. If, therefore, a review of the preceding day is desired, it can be done. Generally it is not; instead, weekly or fortnightly reviews of all preceding series are taken. This *en bloc* method works best here. The grammar drills which are based daily on the series should be reviewed along with the series. If, in addition, mutations of person, tense, etc., are made in the review, practically all of the words will become incorporated in the student's *active* vocabulary.

As to the value of reviews and tests for reflective thinking, clear statement, and neatness, see Chapter III.

The review should give a feeling of mastery. If the student has not got this, there is something at fault with the teaching or the student.

TESTS AND EXAMINATIONS

Some may wish to raise the question of the value of examinations in general. It is known that some schools have abandoned the examination and have substituted therefor periodic hour tests, or even the daily grade.

To this the answer is that in the light of modern experimentation, the old style of semester-end examination, consisting chiefly of memorial material, to the exclusion of reflective thinking, is, indeed, of questionable value. On the other hand, experience has shown that if the student is not stimulated to carry details over for more than a day, or even a week his advance is slow, and, in language, impossible.

The value of examinations is not as tests for determining the student's knowledge. That seems to be the viewpoint of many who are opposed to examinations. We must get a different evaluation of examinations, the true evaluation, before the present-day hostility toward them can be overcome.

The chief values of the examination are: (1) It compels the learner to carry in mind, for long periods, the details of the subject studied. The tendency among young students is to allow a subject to drop out of mind as soon as no further use for it is imperative. The periodic test, and the term or semester examination make further use for it imperative. (2) It teaches students to organize large amounts of material so as to make them readily available for use. (3) It teaches the student to work hard and accurately under stress.

For the teacher an additional aim may be to test the validity of his methods, just as the scientist verifies his hypothesis. If the results are not what may reasonably be expected, something has been overlooked or did not function as was expected. Something in his way of presentation is at fault — lack of clearness, of repetition, of summarization, of stimuli to interest; or something in the student's way of working, repeating, reworking the material; or something in the teacher's way of calling for the material in the test — calling for material not, or only slightly, touched on in the course, or asking only for memorial activity, or calling for principles only, without allowing time for adducing concrete cases. Or perhaps even the hygienic conditions of the room are at fault.

These statements already partly imply the general principles which should obtain in making examinations, and which may be stated as follows:

1. The examination should be a fair test which does not intimidate the average learner but encourages him.
2. It should include a variety of questions and should cover pretty well the ground of the course.
3. It should call for various kinds of work (memory exercise, reflective thinking in original problems, etc.) so that students of various aptitudes may have a chance to do their best.
4. It should call for concrete illustrations of rules or principles.
5. It should not so much require small details as great masses and systems of fact.

6. The statement of the questions should be so clear as to make unnecessary any questions about them on the part of the students.

7. It is well to weight the questions, that is, assign to each a certain value or number of points in the scale of 100.

8. The examination should be properly timed so that the average of the class may be able to finish it in the allotted time.

9. For late adolescents and more particularly for college students the premium should be set on reflective thinking.

Meras[1] has stated the aims in intermediate and advanced examinations in French from a practical viewpoint as follows:

(1) to pronounce distinctly; (2) to hear accurately; (3) to use the language in speaking with a fair degree of fluency; (4) to make use of essential idioms of the French language; (5) to apply the rules of French syntax; (6) to interpret properly a selection of literary value; (7) to appreciate fully the history and life of France and its people.

Further, he asserts that out of 178 French examination papers, collected from 35 American colleges (1915–16), "85 per cent of the papers put in English questions designed to test the pupils' knowledge of French, and only 15 per cent put them in French; 98 per cent of the papers demand translation from French into English, and 92 per cent translation from English into French; 22 per cent of the papers test reading ability; and lastly, in only 26 per cent of the papers is the ability to write an original paragraph in simple idiomatic French given any credit."[2]

Twelve questions, with subheads, which he culled from these papers are printed herewith, together with the improved statement of the same, and a model examination for elementary French as suggested by Mr. Meras.

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[1] Meras, A. A., "French Examinations," *Modern Language Journal,* 1: 285–301.

[2] *Ibid.,* page 287.

Present Form	Suggested Form
1. (*a*) Give the various forms, singular and plural, both genders, of the adjectives, *silencieux, original, vieux,* of the possessive adjective *votre,* of the possessive pronoun *le vôtre.* (*b*) Discuss fully the formation of the feminine of adjectives, giving exceptional forms. (*c*) Give in French all forms (both genders and numbers) of the following adjectives: pretty, happy, dear, frank, white, active.	1. Mettez au féminin les cinq phrases suivantes et puis mettez les dix phrases au pluriel : (*a*) L'oncle a acheté un chien pour son petit neveu. (*b*) Ce beau garçon est plus actif que son frère. (*c*) Mon vieux grand-père est plus silencieux que le vôtre. (*d*) Cet homme n'est jamais chez lui. (*e*) Celui qui est doux, n'est pas toujours franc.
2. (*a*) Give rules for the agreement of past participles. (*b*) Discuss the agreement or non-agreement of the past participle with *être* and *avoir.* (*c*) *Avoir* and *être* as auxiliaries: when is each used and with what does the past participle agree in each case?	2. Copiez le paragraphe suivant et mettez tous les verbes au passé indéfini. Ce jour-là elle alla aux affaires. Elle rentra tard et se coucha tout de suite. Elle ne dormit que deux heures. Elle se leva pour lire une histoire qu'elle ne comprit pas bien (etc.).
3. Discuss fully the position of adjectives.	3. Employez dans de petites phrases les adjectifs suivants : blanc, cinq, mon, beau, intelligent, jeune, intéressant, joli, heureux, facile.
4. Write the following tenses: future of *faire,* imperfect of *savoir,* present subjunctive of *aller* (etc.).	4. Écrivez *dix* phrases qui contiennent chacune un des verbes suivants aux temps indiqués : faire (futur), savoir (imparfait), aller (subjonctif présent) (etc.).
5. How do you choose between *à* and *en* to translate *in* before geographical names?	5. Écrivez *cinq* réponses à chacune des questions suivantes en vous servant des noms propres Bordeaux, l'Angleterre, les États-Unis, la Belgique, Marseille. (*a*) D'où venez-vous?

	(*b*) Où allez-vous l'été prochain? (*c*) Où étiez-vous?
6. (*a*) Give the plural of the following nouns: *bal*, *chou* (etc.). (*b*) What nouns have irregular plurals? (*c*) Write the rules for pluralizing nouns.	6. Mettez au pluriel les phrases suivantes: (*a*) Voilà le travail de ce général. (*b*) La fille a entendu la voix du ciel. (*c*) Le fils de mon frère est mon neveu. (*d*) Cet animal est dans son champ.
7. (*a*) Give the general principles of the formation of adverbs. (*b*) How are adverbs formed from adjectives? What is their normal position in the sentence? (*c*) Give rules for the position of adverbs.	7. (*a*) Écrivez *cinq* phrases qui contiennent les adverbes formés des adjectifs suivants: heureux, poli, prudent, bref, vif. (*b*) Transcrivez les phrases suivantes en ajoutant à chaque phrase l'adverbe *bien*. Il marche aujourd'hui. Il a fini des devoirs. Pour parler il faut étudier. Je suis content (etc.).
8. (*a*) What can you say about the position of pronoun objects? (*b*) Give the rules for the position of conjunctive object pronouns. (*c*) Make a diagram showing the relative position of all personal pronoun objects when standing before the verb.	8. Dans les phrases suivantes remplacez tous les noms par des pronoms: Le professeur donne le livre à l'élève. Les marchandes vendent les fleurs à la dame. Votre sœur vous a montré son portrait. Rendez la lettre à vos amis. N'envoyez pas ces nouvelles à vos parents (etc.).
9. (*a*) Name the possessive adjectives and possessive pronouns.	9. (*a*) Copiez l'exercice suivant et remplacez les points par des adjectifs possessifs ou des pronoms possessifs suivant le cas: Elle m'a donné . . .

(*b*) Give a list of the possessive adjectives and pronouns and explain their agreement.

(*c*) Draw up a table of all the possessive adjectives and possessive pronouns.

10. (*a*) What are the two constructions frequently used in place of the passive voice in French?

(*b*) Discuss the use of the passive voice in French and mention two substitutes for it.

11. (*a*) What is meant by sequence of tenses?

(*b*) What are the principal uses of the subjunctive mode?

(*c*) What tenses may not be used after *si?*

(*d*) What tenses are used in conditional sentences (etc.)?

fleurs, me donnerez-vous . . .?
Tu m'as donné . . . fleurs, me donnera-t-il . . .? (Etc.)

(*b*) Conjuguez les phrases au singulier et au pluriel:
Je cause avec mon frère. Tu causes avec . . ., etc.
J'attends ma sœur. Tu attends . . . Je finis mes leçons. Tu finis . . .

10. Dans l'exercice suivant transformez les verbes passifs en verbes actifs et les verbes actifs en verbes passifs:

Son maître le punira. J'ai été pardonné. Tout le monde admire cet homme. Tout le village admirait le maire (etc.).

11. (*a*) Tous les verbes en italique sont à l'infinitif. Mettez-les aux temps que réclamant la règle et le sens:
Si elle me *gronder*, je *se fâcher*.
Il faut qu'on *savoir* tous les détails.
Elle ne *savoir* pas que son frère *mourir*.
Je ne *penser* pas qu'il *pleuvoir* ce matin (etc.).

(*b*) Complétez les phrases suivantes:
Depuis quand . . .?
Demandez-lui si . . .
Si elle me le demandait . . .
Nous voulions que . . .
Je l'aurais fait si . . .
J'irai la voir quand . . .
(Etc.)

12. Explain the use and meaning of *y* and *en*.	12. Répondez aux questions suivantes sans répéter les mots en italique: Venez-vous *de France?* Pense-t-il souvent *à ce malheur?* Êtes-vous allé *chez lui?* Avez-vous mangé *des bon-bons?* Avez-vous mangé *ces bon-bons?* Était-il *en France* à cette époque? Êtes-vous *à Rouen?* Etc.

Many other suggestions are possible, but these will suffice to show that the candidate should be tested in ability to apply French grammar in the construction of real French sentences and not in ability to organize grammatical facts in valueless lists and synopses, or in meaningless rules and diagrams.

The following elementary French paper may be suggestive:

ELEMENTARY FRENCH

I.	Lecture[1]	10 points
II.	Dictée[2]	10 points
III.	Conversation[3]	10 points
IV.		——

Le drapeau! Ce qui en fait la beauté, c'est d'être vieux, d'être troué. Pourquoi? Parce qu'il représente tous les dangers qu'on a *courus* pour lui, parce qu'il représente tous ceux qui se sont *fait* tuer et qui se feront tuer pour lui. C'est le symbole du régiment et de la patrie, et quand il est en danger on vient le défendre, et quand on veut faire marcher ses hommes, on prend le drapeau.

Rappelez-vous ce qu'a *dit* Napoléon. Il a dit que le drapeau, c'est le foyer; que là où est le drapeau, là est la France. Et *joignant* l'exemple au précepte, un jour en 1796, au pont d'Arcole, cet homme, qui était fait pour mener des campagnes de loin, prit le drapeau et dit à ses hommes: — Suivez votre général!

Et, avec une armée de 15,000 hommes, il enfonça une armée de 40,000 Autrichiens.

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[1] A test in pronunciation.

[2] An ear test.

[3] A test in ability to give in French the substance of a passage read and to answer orally simple questions on that passage.

(1) Explication . . . . 20 points
  (*a*) Écrivez 10 questions sur ce passage.
  (*b*) Quelles sont les couleurs de votre drapeau? Du drapeau français?
  (*c*) Quand un drapeau est-il vraiment beau?
  (*d*) Que symbolise-t-il? Une armée? Le foyer?
  (*e*) Comment appelle-t-on les hommes d'un régiment?
  (*f*) Quelle était la patrie de Napoléon? Quelle est votre patrie?
  (*g*) Quel pays habitent les Autrichiens?
  (*h*) Mentionnez trois pays voisins de la France et les noms de leurs peuples.

(2) La France . . . . 15 points
  (*a*) Qui est Napoléon?
  (*b*) Mentionnez un autre grand soldat français. Un poète. Un auteur dramatique. Un roi. Un homme de science.
  (*c*) Quel danger menaçait la France à cette époque?
  (*d*) Quel était le gouvernement de la France en 1796? Quelles autres formes de gouvernement ont succédé?
  (*e*) Comparez la France à votre patrie.

(3) Exercices . . . . 15 points
  (*a*) Écrivez en toutes lettres, 1796, 15,000, 40,000.
  (*b*) Écrivez la phrase, "Rappellez-vous ce qu'a dit Napoléon" à la forme négative et à la forme familière.
  (*c*) Conjuguez la phrase, "Il dit à ses hommes" à l'indicatif présent, "Je . . ., tu . . ., etc."
  (*d*) Expliquez la syntaxe des participes *courus, dit, fait, joignant.*
  (*e*) Copiez la phrase "C'est le symbole . . . drapeau," et changez les verbes au futur.

V. Écrivez une petite composition de 75 mots environ sur *un* des sujets suivants: la France, la patrie, la guerre.

VI. Grammaire . . . . 20 points

The examination papers in following List A are old style,[1] as they have come down from the grammar translation school, while List B shows the modern trend and may be taken as representative of the best present-day practice:

LIST A

Advanced German

1. Give examples of the "substitutes" for the passive voice.
2. Give examples of the use of all the relative pronouns and "substitutes" for them.

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[1] These are actual examinations, one an official examination and the other used widely in the East.

3. Conjugate *anfangen* in present indicative and in perfect indicative.
4. Write in German a composition or story of at least 400 words.
5. Write an imaginary conversation on a journey of at least 30 lines.
6. Translate into German. (Text not reproduced.)
7. Translate into English. (Text not reproduced.)
8. What rules of German word order are illustrated in 7?
9. Translate into English. (Text not reproduced.)

Elementary French

1. Translate into English. (The passage is not reproduced here.)
2. Give the principal parts of the *italicized* verbs in the above passage.
3. Give the whole of the present indicative and of the preterit of the above verbs.
4. Translate into French. (Text not reproduced.)

In the following examination paper the questions are weighted,[1] i.e., count each a certain number of points. The percentage counted off for errors is also indicated.

LIST B

French I — Second Semester

I. Écrivez en signes phonétiques, prononciation rapide: — Je ne le revoir plus. 10

En signes phonétiques: femme, fils, second, mauvais, faisons, absurd. (Each error ½ point off.) 15

II. Écrivez: L'Arrivée.
La première partie de l'Escapade. 10

III. Écrivez au passé indéfini:
1. Demanda-t-elle?
2. Ils revinrent.
3. Ils n'arrivèrent pas.
4. Elle la mit.
5. Je les vois.
6. Elle resta.
7. Il fit.
8. Elle alla chercher.
9. Il fut.
10. Elle se trompe.

Each error 1 point off. 10

IV. Posez cinq questions sur l'Entr'acte d'Adèle, et répondez aux questions. (Each faulty sentence 1 point off.) 10

V. (*a*) Écrivez la première personne, sing., du présent, de l'imparfait, du futur, du conditionnel, et du passé indéfini de: acheter, recevoir, attendre, choisir.

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[1] These weights represent the relative difficulty of the questions in the judgment of the one who wrote them merely.

(*b*) Écrivez la première personne, plur., du passé indéfini, du plusque-parfait, du futur antérieur, du conditionnel antérieur du verbe : parler.

(*c*) Écrivez le présent des verbes : connaître, voir.
Écrivez la première personne, sing., de l'imparfait de : conduire, écrire. 10
Écrivez la première pers., sing., du futur de : faire, savoir.
(40 verb forms. Each error $\frac{1}{2}$ point off.)

VI. Donner une définition française :
(*a*) d'un élève paresseux ;
(*b*) d'une princesse ;
(*c*) d'un homme pauvre ; 5
(*d*) de tout de suite, tout à l'heure ;
(*e*) d'un élève désobéissant.
(Each faulty definition 1 point off.)

VII. (*a*) Faites accorder les adjectifs et les participes passés :
1. Les mains de cet élève sont toujours (plein) d'encre.
2. Elles sont souvent (impoli).
3. Lucie et Jeanne sont (laborieux).
4. On n'aime pas les (petit) filles (désobéissant).
5. Je vous expliquerai ceci à la (prochain) classe.

(*b*) Complétez par des pronoms démonstratifs : 10
1. Ma dictée est souvent meilleure que —— de Marie.
2. Voici vos cahiers ; voilà —— de Pierre.
3. Je punirai —— qui rirent.
4. Ne faites pas cet exercice-ci ; faites —— là.
5. Julie est le nom de —— qui est la plus laborieuse.
(Each error 1 point off.)

(*c*) Complétez :
1. Je ne lis pas aussi vite que Pierre, mais je prononce mieux que ——.
2. On n'aime pas un garçon —— est impoli.
3. Prenez la boîte —— je vous montre.
4. Donnez-moi —— encre, —— papier, et —— craie.
5. Vous devez fermer la porte —— faire du bruit.

(*d*) Remplacez les adjectifs possessifs et les noms par des pronoms possessifs : 10
1. Je prends *mon cahier.*
2. Elle a *sa règle.*
3. Donnez-moi *mes plumes.*
4. Nous aimons *notre classe.*
5. Voilà *vos livres;* voici *ses livres.*
(Each error 1 point off.)

VIII. Complétez:

1. Elles se sont —— la figure.
2. Je viens du magasin; voilà les fleurs que j'ai ——.
3. C'est la leçon la plus difficile que j'ai jamais ——.
4. Ceci est le mien et —— est le vôtre.

Remplacez par des pronoms:

5. Les jeunes filles vont donner *des cadeaux à leurs parents*
6. Ce garçon raconte *l'histoire à sa sœur.*
7. Je vais donner *mes livres à ses amis.*

Répondez en mettant un pronom:

8. Avec qui êtes-vous entré dans *la salle de bal?*
9. A-t-elle acheté *des bon-bons au magasin?*
10. Avez-vous reçu *des nouvelles* de votre frère?

} 10

(Each error 1 point off.)

French II — Second Semester

I. Donner la classification de chaque forme subjonctive que vous employez dans le morceau suivant:

> "Provided we are on time, all will be well." "But, M. Perrichon! at what time must we be at the meeting place?" "I would like us to be there before noon in order that the major may not think that we are afraid the duel will take place. Besides, before he arrives, I want you to choose the swords. There is nobody who can do it better than you, although Majorin may say the contrary. You are absolutely the only person whom I know, who is capable of rendering me this service, and I am very grateful to you for it."

II. (*a*) Donner les temps primitifs de: conduire, craindre, se souvenir.
(*b*) La première personne (singulier) du futur de: ouvrir, courir, valoir, envoyer, tenir, pouvoir.
(*c*) La première personne (singulier) du passé défini de: voir, vivre.
(*d*) Les trois formes de l'impératif de: s'en aller, s'asseoir.

III. Traduire:

1. Most people who travel in France visit many beautiful cathedrals.
2. How many days have you been in Paris? I have been here three weeks.
3. We had been traveling for several weeks in Switzerland.
4. If I had money enough I should like to stay longer in Paris. I can stay here only a few weeks. I have been here only since last night, but I am beginning to feel the charm of this old city. I am going to take advantage of the time that I shall have here and see as many things as possible.
5. When she arrived, her mother had just read the letters which the janitor had brought.

6. Now we must leave you, for we have some more letters to write and as soon as we shall have finished them, we shall go to bed.
7. The king and queen died a year ago. Did you ever see them?
8. As soon as she had bought them, she showed them to us.
9. He was surprised that I had never seen them. I told him that we had just come to Paris for the first time. Then we thanked him. We were much interested in the show and in the children who were having such a good time.
10. I have sent her some already. Tell her to use them.

IV. *Résumé:*

1. Raconter l'histoire du commandant dans "Le Voyage de M. Perrichon."
2. Raconter (sans trop de détails) l'histoire de Germain à partir de l'enquête.

V. Traduire: Expressions Idiomatiques:

1. Que voulez-vous?
2. Par exemple.
3. C'est bien fait.
4. Prendre un parti.
5. Faire part.
6. À la bonne heure.
7. Allons donc.
8. C'est égal.
9. A la française.
10. Il n'en voulait plus à Jean.
11. Je le crois bien.
12. Ne vous gênez pas.
13. On a beau dire.
14. M. P. vous a pris en grippe.
15. Autant vaudrait ne pas partir.

NOTE. These List B examinations for French were given at the University of Chicago High School, and were furnished to me by Professor A. G. Bovée.

College Class in German I (Miami University, End of November, 1 hour)

I. (*a*) Reproduzieren Sie:
Ich wasche mir Hände und Arme. (a Series)
(*b*) Schreiben Sie dasselbe noch einmal im Perfektum 2. Person, Singularis.
(*c*) Schreiben Sie zu jedem Substantiv in obiger Lektion ein passendes Adjektiv.

II. (*a*) Reproduzieren Sie: Die Magd holt Kohlen. (a Series)
(*b*) Schreiben Sie dasselbe noch einmal im Futurum 3. Person, Pluralis.

(*c*) Setzen Sie in obiger Serie für jedes Substantiv das entsprechende Pronomen.

III. Beantworten Sie: Wie viel Uhr ist es? Wann ist Washington geboren? Welches Datum haben wir heute? Schreiben Sie mit Worten 79, 109, $\frac{1}{4}$, $\frac{3}{4}$, die Ordinalzahlen von 10 bis 20; die Kardinalzahlen von 21 bis 31.

College Class in German II (October 29, 1 hour)

1. Schreiben Sie eine Inhaltsangabe von *Immensee*, eine Seite, grammatisch genau.

2. (*a*) Welche Verben nehmen den doppelten Infinitiv? Wann? (*b*) Illustrieren Sie das mit drei Sätzen. (*c*) Geben Sie eine Synopsis, 2. Person, Singularis, aller Zeiten, Konjunktiv I und II eines starken Verbs. (*d*) Schreiben Sie zu jeder Art von Konjunktiv 2 Sätze. (Label each.) (*e*) Geben Sie eine Synopsis 2. Person, Pluralis, Passiv, aller Zeiten, in Sätzen. (*f*) Zeichnen Sie eine Karte von Deutschland, indem Sie die Landesgrenzen, die sieben gröszten Flüsse, die Hauptgebirge, die zehn gröszten Staaten, und die Städte die über 250 tausend Einwohner haben, angehen.

Problems

Write an exposition of what are called memory types. Cf. Meumann, *The Psychology of Learning*, pages 169–179. Which class of learners — memory type — is most in need of reviews? Are there any who do not need the review? State tersely the laws of memory.

Write a list of examination questions — to be answered by a French, German, or Spanish class at the end of (*a*) 6 weeks, (*b*) 1 semester, (*c*) 2 semesters, (*d*) 4 semesters, and including questions on grammar, reading, and writing based in each case on specific texts and portions of texts to be indicated at the top of each list of questions. Cf. also *Modern Language Journal*, 1:163 ff.; 1:182 ff.

CHAPTER FOURTEEN

SPECIAL PROBLEMS

SPECIAL problems arise from a variety of sources, one of which is that different students have different aims in taking a course. The importance of keeping in mind these various aims has already been touched on. A questionnaire which students answer the first day of the term will place the necessary data before the teacher. For this purpose the following blank, which the writer has used in Miami University, may serve:

QUESTIONNAIRE

Name ....
Where,....................in which school,....................and under whom....................did you take French, German, or Spanish?
Was French, German, or Spanish the language of the classroom?..........
How far did you go in the grammar?..............................
What grammar did you use?......................................
What reader did you use?.................... What texts?............
(Look this up carefully.)
What courses have you had in English?..............................
In Latin?..
In European History?..
In any other language?......................................
What is your purpose in taking French, German, or Spanish?............
Have you ever taught?........ What?.......... Where?..........
How long?..
Are you of French, German, or Spanish extraction?.......... To what extent?..
Have you heard French, German, or Spanish spoken in your family?......
How long?..
Was it Parisian French, High German, Castilian Spanish, or a dialect?....
....
What books on France (Germany, Spain, South America), its literature, its institutions, have you read?..............................
(Look this up carefully.)

These blanks should be kept for ready reference, and the main points — how much foreign language the student has had (where, under whom) and his purpose in taking the course (commercial, scientific purposes, preparation for medical study, general uses, etc.) — should be jotted down on the class card or on the class book, so that they may be constantly before the teacher in his dealings with the student.

How far can the individual needs of students be met in an ordinary class? Surely those who are intending to teach, especially, should never be allowed to pronounce slovenly, and they must be held strictly to the oral requirements in particular.

For the student who wishes to read only, we can do little as far as excusing him from the oral and written work goes. He can be assigned extra reading, however, and be allowed to report on this.

For those who wish to learn to read science or commercial texts, special courses are given in the largest schools. For the rest, it is impossible to do anything for such students, if the classes are large, except that they should be encouraged to read such texts as outside, or optional, reading. Such persons should be asked to buy these outside texts, and several persons with identical aims may be set to working at the same book, which will lighten the teacher's labor of hearing abstracts and testing.

Teachers and administrative officers will do well to remember that all special training in technical subjects best rests upon a satisfactory basis of broad general training and culture. Even for commercial purposes, the training is far more efficient if it has imparted a broad and generous conception of the foreign civilization whose language is being studied.

Administrative questions arising in connection with technical foreign-language courses are: Shall they be parallel with the regular courses for the first year? Or shall all the time and energy in commercial and scientific courses be devoted to learning to read? Or shall commercial students receive the regular work in speaking and writing during the first year, or the first two years, while the engineers and others who wish only to learn to read are put to studying and translating texts at once? Or can they learn to read faster and surer if given the work in hearing, speaking, first, as some assert?

Evidently the answers will depend on the aims, the time, and the teachers available in each case. Commercial students may well be taught speaking, if time and teaching facilities allow. Science students, especially in college and scientific schools, who need to learn to read only, can learn to do this most speedily without putting time on hearing, speaking, and writing exercises. One reason for much unsatisfactory work with these students is that they are not given enough extensive reading, and hence develop little facility and liking for such reading, and remain slaves to the dictionary.

The question whether two or three hours a week for two years, or four or six hours a week for one year, is better practice for students learning to translate merely, must be answered by recommending the two-year course. For, however excellent intensive study with numerous recitations per week is, when it is a question of sensori-motor reactions, for this translation work, the drawn-out course has the advantage of allowing time for habituation and "set." No time is lost in the warming-up process in this translation work.

THE ARRANGEMENT OF MODERN LANGUAGE TEXTS

The question of the arrangement of texts is vital in so far as good arrangement aids learning. The style of printing the notes at the end of the volume is quite an outgrowth of the old translation school and will, no doubt, pass away with it. Notes at the bottom of the page are more swiftly accessible. They are also beyond criticism if the recitation, or the part of it concerning content, is conducted with closed books.

It is true that it is easier for the student to make a translation without previous preparation if the notes are printed as footnotes. But on the other hand, he will probably read the footnote several times more than he would one printed at the end of the volume; thus the result in actual acquisition will be greater, and besides the footnotes have saved him time.

Again the question of a special vocabulary is a much-debated one. One group says: No, the student shall look up the words in a dictionary where are listed the various meanings of the word. This gives him a broader conception of it. The opponents say just as emphatically that the special word list is a great time-saver, that if the student uses a dictionary, he looks only until he finds a meaning which suits the context in hand and chooses that, paying no attention to the other meanings. Thus there is no gain, but a loss of time, in reading several words instead of one, and in thumbing the dictionary, finding a word in which consumes much more time than in a short special list.

Some claim that after the first year the student must be held to finding first the *general* meaning of the word in a dictionary. This is perhaps a realizable ideal in French and German schools, but hardly in the United States.

I am in agreement with the believers in the special vocabulary, and were it not for the need of a general list, would go even a step further and have a word list at the end of each lesson, especially in beginners' books, so that a minimum of time should be lost in thumbing the vocabulary. That every vocabulary should be fitted out with an index has been emphasized earlier.

The use in texts of lists of printed questions in the foreign language, over the text, is no doubt good pedagogy. Young and inexperienced teachers need the help they furnish, while for all teachers they are useful in providing for uniform written work on the lesson.

Teachers will see at a glance that none of these lists is exhaustive enough to form an adequate quiz on the text; that is, many additional questions will need to be asked in order to bring out all the meaning of the text.

No teacher will be so unwise as to attempt to quiz a class by reading these questionnaires to them. That would make a poor and halting procedure, and a bad impression on the class. The best use for these questions is, then, as a guide for the production of uniform written work, or as a guide to students in the preparation of their lessons; when they may consider the printed questions as samples, or typical of the questions which will be asked in the question-and-answer portion of the recitation.

The lists of English paraphrases of the text, which likewise are printed in numerous texts today, are intended for oral or written composition work, or both. Now the radical reformers will have none of this translation from English into the foreign language. The opposition to this form of exercise dates from the time when students in Europe were set to translating the native into the foreign speech without any help whatever, and from the time when pupils in the United States were set to wrestling with turning *Black Beauty* or *The Legend of Sleepy Hollow* into French or German without any helps as to idiom.

However, it is plain that this sort of preposterous task and, on the other hand, requiring the translation of paraphrases of a text which has been thoroughly studied, are two quite different things.

We will readily agree, too, that compositions can equally well be based on the text itself, instead of on paraphrases, the directions being given in the foreign language, thereby eliminating the mother tongue completely. Such work is, no doubt, more desirable, but what about correcting it when no two compositions are alike? Can the teacher use this kind of composition exclusively? That is, will he have the time to do the voluminous correcting?

Of course he can use the printed *questions* discussed above. But these seek to elicit a knowledge of content, not of grammar. While answering them involves considerable use of grammatical forms, the student naturally avoids expressions and forms in which he is not fluent, or of which he is ignorant. Thus he reviews the easiest portions of what he does know of grammar, but adds nothing to this knowledge and gets no drill in difficult constructions and forms.

Here the value of paraphrases comes in. By aid of well-constructed paraphrases not only are the idioms reviewed, but drill on definite parts of the grammar is given. And here, to be sure, we find the weakness of some of the lists of paraphrases: they present a drill in idioms but not enough of a review of definite portions of grammar. To do this, in an elementary or intermediate text, a number of exercises should include the forms of the classes of nouns, others the endings of adjectives, others the indicative, imperative, and passive of verbs, etc. In this way these exercises of a text would stand for a review of certain portions of the grammar. Some recent texts have incorporated this idea.

Such paraphrases have, as suggested, the advantage of providing for uniform, or approximately uniform, questions, which can be corrected at the board. In this way each student can be held for correcting his own mistakes.

That all such exercises can be done without the intervention of English is well attested by the exercises contained in many direct-method books.

This brings us to the consideration of the further editorial apparatus now often found in texts; e.g., missing-word exercises, mutation exercises, themes for compositions with suggestions as to content, exercises in word formation, invention of phrases and sentences after a model.

These exercises, invented by the modern school, are to be hailed with joy. They are the concrete expression in our texts of the demand for *living grammar.* By such means grammar can be thoroughly drilled without killing primitive interest. Indeed, the grammar and the composition book are eminently the places for these exercises. For as to such work in connection with reading texts we must use some discretion. When Matthias says, "*Die zusammenhängende Lektüre hat man zu schützen vor zerhackender und zerstampfender grammatischer Unterweisung,*" he covers precisely the point I have in mind here. That some such exercises may profitably be based upon texts is patent. That the inspirational and æsthetic value of literary texts must not be evaporated by declining, conjugating, and reconstructing everything is just as patent.

If a literary text containing such exercises is used as a composition book, very well! But in this case the story should at least be read through first and enjoyed before the exercises are taken up. And, in general, we may say that this method of studying literature is the way to cause the student to remember it as drudgery instead of as ideals and inspiration.

The amount and kind of material edited under one cover are also important. In America we read four or five texts in the first two years in high school or college. Were it not better to restrict the number of longer stories somewhat and to read instead, especially for purposes of the extensive reading, a dozen or more short stories, essays, plays, and a slight collection of poems which will give a broader outlook upon French, German, or Spanish life, for the reason that each additional author affords a new environment, viewpoint, style, etc.?

Or again, instead of using a few long tales, is it not better in texts of the third and fourth years to represent types of writing? Thus a text of the best half dozen short stories in the language, another containing a half dozen of the best short comedies in the language, another containing a collection of high-class sketches of the modern time — literary, biographical, historical, or technical — may do excellent service.

These are not revolutionary ideas. Manley and Allen's *Four German Comedies,* Bender's *German Short Stories,* Buffum's *French Short Stories,* Benton's *Easy French Plays,* Fontaine's *Douze Contes Nouveaux,* Dow and Skinner's *Quelques Contes des Romanciers Naturalistes,* Van Horne's *Tres Comedias,* and others, are edited on this plan.

Or again, for advanced classes, a period may be treated as is done in Wenckebach's *Meisterwerke des Mittelalters;* or an author may be shown through his best work, and additional sketches, letters, aphorisms, poems, etc. Of this type of book there are also a few representatives available.

Fiction, especially novels and short stories, seems to be unduly in favor in the United States. But biography, well written, is equally interesting, or can be made so, for adolescents. And on popular science, art, commerce and industry, geography, and customs, there is a wide range of essays by first-rate writers which certainly deserve some consideration. Can we not have such collections, and collections of the various kinds mentioned above?

If the editorial apparatus, especially the critical and historical introduction, were properly restricted, room for additional texts would become available. Today, the proportional size of the introduction is often astounding. The edition of a nineteenth century drama lying before me is quite typical in this respect; there are more than 100 pages of introduction to 175 pages of text. And, in most cases, the matter contained in the introduction can be read equally well in any standard history of literature, or edition of the author's works.

THE VOCABULARY OF BEGINNERS' BOOKS

The problem of the proper vocabulary for beginners' books is as important as it is entrancing. Scores of American authors and editors have tried to solve it, each in his own way, but it cannot be solved by one person. The work it presupposes is too great. This would include tabulations of the most frequently used words in the common printed and conversational speech of the language concerned. The question of how much of conversational and how much of literary vocabulary to include would need to be solved first. Next, the texts to be excerpted would need to be decided on. For it will not do to follow a dictionary, taking a vote as to the popularity of each word. The choice must rest upon actual count and upon certain other considerations. (See Introduction.)

A committee of persons interested in the question would, no doubt, be able to do the work most efficiently. Another question, best solved by agreement, is the size of the vocabulary and its gradation for the first and second years.

Frequency of use is the most important criterion to be applied, but not the only one. Functional value and concreteness are only less important. Then there should be the proper proportion between the number chosen from different classes of words (parts of speech). Indeed, these criteria run counter to the principle of frequency of occurrence.

Another question which asserts itself is whether there is to be any passive vocabulary included in a beginners' book. That there should be very little of it, if any, is certain. In *reading* texts of the second year there must be passive vocabulary, for the reason that the student needs to learn to read more words than he can assimilate as active vocabulary.[1]

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[1] In connection with this subject of vocabulary for beginners' books cf. Palmer, H. E., *The Scientific Study and Teaching of Languages*, pages 238 ff. (World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York; 1917).

How useful such a list would be to an author is plain. To be sure, an author, while adhering to this vocabulary, would in addition use a number of words for the sake of general expediency, because of the nature of the material he is using, etc.

It needs no demonstration to show that the necessary basal vocabulary can be taught far more efficiently if the more or less useless words which are today found in considerable numbers, even in otherwise excellent texts, can be eliminated.

Bagster-Collins[1] has written a report of some tabulations of the vocabulary of beginners' books, and has attempted to set up principles of choice for the vocabulary of such texts. His main points are these:

> I was at least surprised to learn that the total number of different words occurring in the ten books exceeded 5000, and I was amazed when less than four per cent of that number was common to them all. Even if one added words of eight and nine appearances, the percentages rise but slowly. By far the greater number of words appear in less than five of these representative books.
>
> It has always seemed to me that a very large portion of words in a beginning book should consist of a well-balanced selection from the basic reading vocabulary. Work in speaking, however, makes our problem more complex. It is partly due, no doubt, to the introduction of words used primarily in the spoken form or in social correspondence that we find such a wide range in the books examined.
>
> One of the troubles back of it all is, authors cannot control the length of time the book is studied. It would not be far from the truth to say that books organized on a two-year basis are scurried through in six months, or more often still, in a year. But publishers and the authors themselves are not wholly without blame. It ought to be stated definitely how long under certain normal conditions the book is meant to take for its completion.

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[1] Bagster-Collins, E. W., "The Standardization of the Vocabulary in Beginners' Books," *Monatshefte für Deutsche Sprache und Pädagogik*, 18: 245–248.

The radical books are usually the greatest offenders. The method which should stand for thorough work through the intensive manipulation of material, small in amount, founders at times because teachers and authors show too little restraint in limiting the size of the vocabulary, particularly the active vocabulary.

The task of rating words into first year, second year, etc., also presents many difficulties. Yet many words found in beginners' books seem woefully out of place. Some of them scarcely belong in the vocabulary of the high-school pupil at all. It might be possible to work out a plan by which we could start in the first book the nucleus words of at least a certain number of agreed-upon thought-groups, and then as the successive years roll by associated words and thought-groups would naturally be added. Through such expansion and interlocking there would be developed in the minds of all pupils a fairly well-rounded vocabulary.[1]

Note. Dr. W. Wadepuhl will shortly publish the vocabulary common to the great number of German beginners' books. This may serve as a standard elementary vocabulary. H. Keniston's list of 1322 Spanish words common to a " few score " of texts (see *Hispania*, 3: 85–96), and Professor Henmon's work on French vocabulary now in progress, may serve toward giving us our standard elementary vocabulary in Spanish and French.

THE PROBLEM OF THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

Normally a child will attend the junior high school from the age of twelve to fifteen. For this period the problem of the study of a foreign language needs to be considered separately. In the pre-adolescent period memory should be worked to the full, upon proper material. Imitation is still the chief way of learning. Conversation, oral reading, and committing passages should have a large place. In this sensori-motor period, pictures and movements should be presented before their auditory symbols. "The mind must become conscious of a new experience and feel the need of an appropriate symbol by which the experience may be labeled and recalled before the word is given." Thus Netchajeff showed[1] that the memory for emotions, numbers, and abstract concepts develops late, while the memory for concrete objects develops first. The motor centers are developing rapidly. Speech coördinations should now be formed. The first two years in junior high school should be the golden years for doing this. This must include, of course, good habits of pronunciation. The training for the greater part of the junior-high-school course must consist in memorizing, drill, habituation, with only a limited appeal to the reason.

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[1] Cf. also Bagster-Collins, "A Brief Study Showing the Relation between Vocabulary and Treatment of the Annotated Reading Test," *Modern Language Journal*, 2: 341–351.

The principles set down so far map out the processes which must be emphasized during the first half of these three years.

With the oncoming of adolescence, — the second half of the junior-high-school period, — however, the child undergoes great changes, both physical and mental: increased growth, functional maturity, change of voice; and on the mental side: greater keenness of the senses, development of the rational powers, broadening of the social ideals. And besides, many pupils will leave school at the end of the junior-high-school course.

Our methods must take cognizance of a few further points: (1)Memory is still excellent. (2) The child's ideals are undergoing great change. (3) With the increased keenness of the senses, and his own richer voice, his love of euphonious speech grows. (4) He has a growing desire for knowledge which manifests itself in a craving for reading.

These facts mean that memorizing gems of literature must be continued; that his social and religious ideals should be shaped by the highest models in literature and on the part of the teacher; that the teacher must take care to read and speak nicely, using his organs of speech pleasingly; that his love of reading must be directed into the right channels, and not only within the school hours.

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[1] Netchajeff, A., "Die Entwickelung des Gedächtnisses bei Schulkindern," *Zeitschrift für Psychologie,* **24**: 321–351, 1900.

In addition, a few general procedures may be mentioned. We must not forget that, until late adolescence, when a period of aversion to imitation often sets in, imitation is still the great factor in learning. This is especially true in learning a language. But we know that imitation thrives best under unconventional circumstances. The classroom atmosphere must consequently not be made stiff and formal. Easy, vivacious abandon, informal exercises, conversations, discussions, as far as comports with good discipline, bring about the proper spirit and work here.[1]

The processes involved in oral reading are now perfectly fluent, as far as the matter lies within the child's mental range. For this reason, and further because a sea of sounds — of the language to be learned — should envelop him during this period, oral reading with assigned rôles, or in concert, or by an individual before the class, must have a large place.

In assigning the material for memorizing, a wise discretion must be used. Acquisition may be heightened by giving the pupil some idea of how valuable such acquisition is, of how different various types of memory act, and thus stimulating emulation. However, we know that capacity for memorizing varies with different pupils. But going beyond a student's capacity is doubly dangerous in that it inhibits all memorial activity.[2] Hence a wise minimum should be set for the class, which should not go beyond the capacity of the poorest third, and additional assignments may be made for the better learners.

As to the kinds of texts to be used it has been remarked in an earlier chapter that the tastes of girls and boys differ, and that it is impossible in coeducational schools to provide for both equally well, except through outside readings.

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[1] Cf. also for practical suggestions as to socialization of language study in junior high school, *Pedagogical Seminary*, 23 : 76–86, 1916.

[2] Meumann, E., *The Psychology of Learning*, page 147.

However, we know that the time for fairy tales has passed at puberty and that the time for stories of life has arrived. Animal stories full of action will still do, and nature poetry often meets a distinct want.

For boys, stories of adventure, of war, and biography fill a need. While girls often like these also, the love for them comes earlier, by a year or two, than in case of boys. For girls, love stories come to be a favorite at eighteen and upward, but for girls or boys in high school this sort of reading should be inhibited.[1]

That, with the oncoming of reflection, the principles of language as laid down in grammar must receive more emphasis, is plain. The principles and forms of accidence, by this time quite firmly established by practice, may now be memorized and, in moderation, consciously applied. But throughout this course the emphasis must be laid upon imitative practice. This principle must be borne in mind also in administering examinations, which should, at this age, put no undue strain upon the pupils, especially the girls.

FOLLOWING UP GRADUATES

The matter of following up graduates is of vital concern even for high-school teachers, and still more so for college and university teachers. Various follow-up schemes are being used by schools, although all such schemes are recent, but I am thinking here of a follow-up of young teachers, and following up what a graduate now in teaching-service is doing in the special line of work for which the teacher stands. This is new. For the modern-language teacher, the follow-up of all but those engaged in modern-language teaching can be only a matter of encouraging them to keep up their use of the language. This can be done by publishing in the high-school or college paper, or elsewhere, lists of up-to-date and easily accessible reading matter. If the teacher has facilities for keeping in touch with graduates, personally, notes of what some of them have done in such reading may also be published. If this is to be a success, the teacher needs to prepare the pupil for such postgraduate reading during the course by emphasizing the value and the pleasure of it, its value as a business and social asset, as an intellectual hobby, etc.

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[1] Cf. Chase, S. T., "Adolescence: The Choice of Reading Matter," *Pedagogical Journal of Adolescence*, 1901; Conradi, E., "Children's Interests in Words, Slang, Stories, etc.," *Pedagogical Seminary*, 10: 359–404, 1903; Trettien, A. W., "Psychology of the Language Interest of Children," *Pedagogical Seminary*, 11: 113–177, 1904.

Our chief concern here, however, is with those who engage in teaching modern languages. With these we need to keep in touch for their own good, the good of education, and for the good of our departments. As far as advancing graduates to better positions is concerned, this work is being done by numerous universities. However, it is not this employment-bureau aspect of the question, but the pedagogical and intellectual which I have in mind here. The main point is to improve the teacher in service by helping him over his initial difficulties, by keeping him in touch with the latest books and helps, and by encouraging him to go on with his studies in one way or another.[1] Such a plan was carried on for several years with those who went out from Miami University. The blank used may be suggestive. It is here reproduced.

Name and address............................Date................
When were you graduated?...........With what degree?.............
What position do you now hold?.....................................
What subjects are you teaching?....................................
How many years of French, German, or Spanish are you teaching?........
Have you ever taught more French, German, or Spanish than at present?..
What salary are you receiving?.....................................

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[1] Ruediger, W. C., "Agencies for the Improvement of Teachers in Service," page 157, treats this subject for teachers in general. U. S. Bureau of Education Bulletin, No. 3, 1911 (Washington, Government Printing Office).

What kind of position do you desire?..
What salary would you expect?...
Any study done since graduation?
    Dates, schools, and courses...
What plans have you for future study?.......................................
If married, state here..
Please note any publications of yours, any particular achievement or accomplishment which you wish to mention..............................

(NOTE. The information given will be treated as strictly confidential.)

Annually a circular letter was sent to all of these teachers and a bureau of information was conducted for them, to which they were invited to apply at any time for help, or for a visit to their classrooms on the part of a professor.

This work proved of great value in getting young teachers well started in their work, in getting material for them, in encouraging a disheartened one, and in keeping the ideal of a greater achievement before them.

Coöperation with superintendents is of course necessary in order that the classroom visitation may be welcomed by them. For this purpose a letter was written to each superintendent who employed one of our recent graduates, apprising him of what the department was undertaking to do, and inviting him to send to us his criticism of the young teacher, and inquiring whether a visit on our part would be welcomed by him. The professor should be able to give expert help, especially since he knows the teacher well and is largely responsible for his training. Thus the matter is put on the basis of the professor's interest in the candidate and not of any desire to improve, or meddle with, the superintendent's supervision.

SURVEYS

In recent years surveys of schools and departments have furnished many teachers with food for serious thought. Surveys, wisely conducted, have done much good, others have, no doubt, failed to do so. Teachers will do well to study the matters generally touched on, in order to derive what good can be reaped from this activity as well as to anticipate possible surveys.

Here Allen's books, *Self-Surveys by Colleges and Universities* and *Self-Surveys by Teacher Training Schools,*[1] will be of the greatest value. The following quotations and questionnaires concern modern language teachers specifically.

> Recent actions by two faculties accentuate the need for nationwide surveys of compulsory courses. Wisconsin's faculty has adopted a course that does not require foreign languages. Columbia has done away with all degrees but the B.A. and has taken the position that whatever credits are offered by a student entitle him "fairly to the possession of that degree which has historically stood for a liberal training" if they have been "serious, well organized, coherent, and catholic." What Columbia is strong enough to volunteer, every college in this country will be compelled to debate and to consider on the basis of local fact rather than tradition.
>
> If the contentions which have heretofore bolstered certain subjects with compulsion are sound, there are countable, describable, local evidences. If no local reasons exist, perhaps a survey will show that there are local reasons either for setting up an entirely new list of compulsory subjects or for abandoning all compulsions except one; viz., that every student shall select courses which fit one another and fit him.[2] . . .
>
> 1. Is the spirit put into work by instructors who have compulsory subjects noticeably different from that shown by instructors who have only elective work?
> 2. Is there a noticeable difference in the spirit of the same instructors when teaching compulsory subjects and when teaching elective subjects?
> 3. How many students now registered were compelled to take each of the alternative compulsory courses?

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[1] Both published by World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York; 1917.

[2] *Self-Surveys by Colleges and Universities,* page 238.

4. How many students have registered for advance electives in subjects in which they earlier took compulsory courses?

5. Do similar facts for courses entirely elective indicate any difference in the holding power of elective over complete or partial compulsion?

6. Is the student's interest in the courses which he had in mind when he took the prerequisite elementary courses noticeably different from the interest he took in the prerequisite?

7. Is German or French better taught than Greek or Latin?

8. What subjects are students electing in largest numbers?

9. What evidence is there that they are electing subjects rather than instructors?

10. What evidence is there that changes in popularity of subjects are due to changes in social and industrial conditions or to changes in the number of trained teachers sent out to preparatory schools by colleges?

11. What subjects are being taught for no other assigned reason except that they are part of traditional learning?

12. How far is pressure to retain or to expand compulsory subjects due to faculty members now teaching these subjects? . . . .

Another set of questions relates to what actually happens in courses compulsorily taken. The trend of opinion might have been different as to "taking" Latin or "being exposed" to German had men acquired facility to feel, think, speak, or write in those languages. If all students of compulsory subjects obtained A-plus by both class grading and world grading, fewer questions would be raised. It is natural that questions are raised as to the value of courses compulsorily taken from which students secure failure, D or C, with little or nothing in memory or power to compensate for time spent and other studies missed. . . .

Many friends of the classics, foreign languages, and other compulsory subjects, including English, mathematics, and Bible study, believe that these subjects would benefit from free competition; that they need no compulsion; and that more students will elect them and benefit from them if no students are required to take them, and if instructors are required to adapt them to present-day needs rather than to former practices. Specific testimony from a number of colleges would help test this belief. . . .

Every subject will benefit from taking count of stock and testing its own holding power; i.e., by comparing the number taking each course with the number whose preparation makes them eligible to elect it.[1] . . .

After having the number of registrations for each course offered, it is important to know the distribution of grades given by each instructor. These grades will show what the instructor believes is acquired from his course. More vital than the reason cited for teaching foreign languages is the manner and content of such teaching. . . .

1. Is the direct (speaking) . . . or indirect (reading) . . . method employed? If the speaking method is not employed, how much time is given to pronunciation? If the speaking method is employed, what are the evidences that it is successful? How are results tested? How many hours a week are given to speaking? How many chances has each student a week? In what ways is the classroom opportunity supplemented by out-of-class opportunity, as at a special table in a French house, on a German hike or *Zug*, through foreign newspapers or magazines?
2. How early in the course does the teacher use only the foreign language? From the beginning . . .; at the middle . . .; enough . . .?
3. What advanced courses are given in the foreign language only? What in English only?
4. How much and what kind of written composition and oral composition is done by a student in foreign language? How often? In what size class?
5. What concrete evidences are there that students taught by the direct method have been able to conduct business or professional conversations in that language?

One reason why the direct method is not more generally used is that colleges have been unable to obtain men and women who are at once college graduates, capable instructors, and capable linguists. It is easier to secure persons who combine general teaching ability with a reading knowledge of the language; hence many of our stronger universities are found to have both beginning and advanced classes in foreign languages conducted by men and women unable to compose and pronounce properly the simplest sentence necessary for ordering a meal, entertaining a customer, or explaining the origin of the European war. Where this indirect method is found the first question should be, Why? That is, Do we have it because we want it or because we do not find a person capable of teaching the conversational method?

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[1] *Ibid.*, pages 239–240.

Justification for the indirect method is by no means lacking. Many business houses want ability to translate Spanish into English without ability to translate English into Spanish or to speak a word of Spanish. Graduate students want to read in foreign languages without expecting to write or speak in those languages. Ability to pronounce bromidic phrases in foreign tongues is an asset worth much to many. Distinction may be gained in professions and careers where ability to read foreign languages is or seems indispensable without even one's intimates discovering one's inability to write, pronounce, or speak a complete sentence in those languages.

What a particular student or class can do in our college after studying a foreign language six months or four years is a question of fact easily testable. Even the extent to which his English, his feeling, his vision, his sympathy have become refined, cultured, catholic, can be tested. The main trouble is that the need for testing has been obscured by the traditional reasons for taking foreign languages, such as that *per se* they have higher disciplinary value, and in practice are better taught than are other subjects. This alleged better teaching is without doubt due to the grammar problems involved in learning foreign languages; elements are cubby-holed and tackled more definitely than in the social sciences and the content has a broader appeal than that of mathematics and natural sciences. . . .

Whether a foreign language gives discipline and is well or badly taught is to be learned in the same way that any other fact is found out, by analyzing and observing the phenomena under discussion:

1. What is the purpose of each course?
2. How many students have taken courses?
3. How many have not given evidence that they learned so much of it as was covered in their course?
4. How many have given evidence of benefiting in proportion to the opportunity?
5. What is the nature of that evidence?
6. So far as there was failure, what is the evidence that the fault was with the student, or with the method used in teaching, or with the instructor?

7. What kinds of tests have been worked out by each foreign-language department to see how many students obtain the minimum they are expected to obtain?

8. Which departments have and have not worked out the minimum essentials which must be obtained from each course?

9. If survey courses in foreign literatures are given in English, why should there be foreign-language prerequisites? That is, why should courses not be thrown open to all students?

10. If the engineer who elects French finds German unnecessary, and the engineer who chooses German finds French unnecessary, why is either French or German necessary for an engineer who reads current engineering journals in English?

In few colleges will foreign-language faculties welcome a test of their work by members of other faculties, at least until after they themselves have made the test. Few, however, will decline to work out tests to be applied by themselves.

How far unbiased consideration of the need for and success of foreign languages in a given college is made difficult by the "vested rights" idea of those now teaching foreign languages and sister compulsory subjects will quickly develop on self-survey. . . .

The case for requiring foreign languages before and after admission to college was summarized for the University of Wisconsin survey by Dean E. A. Birge as follows:

I. *Disciplinary.*

1. A foreign language offers a definite study, with long-tested and well-established methods. Lessons are definite, and methods definite. The student knows what he has to do, how he must do it, and when he has done it. The teacher knows how much to assign, and can test immediately and with precision the amount and quality of the student's work.

2. It demands preëminently constant, close, and accurate work, and is therefore a peculiarly efficient means of education.

3. It demands that the student hold closely in mind a considerable (but not unreasonable) number of facts and principles and apply them exactly in numerous cases every day. It demands memory, accuracy, and precision in a way which is not true to the same extent of any other study.

4. It requires the student to direct his attention consciously to

the basic facts of language. This comes at a time in his education when his knowledge of the similar facts of the vernacular has become in large measure subconscious.

5. It is usually given in continuous courses of two or more years, and in this respect has an advantage over other subjects of high-school study as a preparation for college.

II. *Linguistic.*

1. It necessarily requires a definite, precise, and discriminating use of words. Students resent this when required in the vernacular, but accept it as a matter of course in foreign languages.

2. It necessitates attention to accuracy of enunciation and correct differentiation of sounds.

3. Learning even the elements of a foreign language, the student gains a wholly new view of the nature and capacities of language.

4. For these and other reasons it is a most important instrument of training in the use of the vernacular.

5. The study of one foreign language affords a basis for the study of any other one.

III. *Literary.*

1. It gives a fresh view of literature, and one that cannot be gained from similar study of the vernacular alone.

2. It deals with a limited amount of reading of acknowledged literary excellence.

3. It gives the student capable of such training practice in the nice use of words, which cannot be reached as directly and quickly in any other way.

4. Even a two-years' course of foreign language, well taught in a high school, gives a new point of view from which to see English literature.

IV. *Moral.*

1. The student who attempts in high school a course in foreign language is undertaking a longer and more important piece of intellectual work than he has attempted before. The completion of such an attempt is the best kind of moral preparation for success in the continuous work of the four years of college.

2. It makes for culture and enlightenment by bringing the high-

school student into direct contact with the words and thoughts of men of other countries and times.

3. It develops sympathy and understanding for some fundamental aspects of life and thought of foreign peoples, and so contributes to civilization.

Colleges contemplating a survey of their foreign-language situation will do well to have the foregoing declaration of faith tested and the above listed questions answered by both foreign-language and other faculties. In addition, the management or faculty committee may wish to ask the following questions. When the University of Wisconsin answered similar questions from experience, its faculty recommended a course with no required foreign language.

1. How many students would take foreign languages if they were not compelled to take them?

2. Are foreign languages as effectively taught as they would be if they were compelled to compete with other subjects for the interest of students? Y.... N....

3. How many students now elect foreign languages beyond the number of hours of work which they are compelled to take?

4. If it is necessary to give general foreign-language literary courses in English in order that advanced students of foreign languages may understand, why should these courses require previous work in German or French, and why should they not be open to all students?

5. How many students would like an opportunity to learn while at college to speak foreign languages?

6. What benefits does a student receive from a foreign language, who obtains in his final examinations a mere passing mark?

7. Is indifferent work or poor training in foreign languages better discipline or better cultivation than excellent work in another subject? Y.... N.... Is there any reason why any subject taught in the university cannot be so organized and presented that the student will receive as much benefit from the learning process as from the learning process in foreign languages?

8. Should any subject be taught in a university merely for the sake of keeping alive the teaching of that subject in high schools?

9. Would it be well to offer students an opportunity to elect sections where they might learn to speak?

10. Why are there so few students in advanced courses in foreign languages in proportion to the very large numbers who are compelled to take these courses during their freshman, sophomore, and later years?

11. If, as the engineering requirements indicate, it is felt by at least one college that concentration upon one language is more effective before entrance, would there not be a similar advantage to the student after entrance in taking 16 units of one language rather than dividing two years between two languages?

12. What advantage is there to students who do not pursue foreign languages beyond the elementary and required courses? In what ways do these advantages show in the study of other languages?

13. If one of the main reasons for requiring foreign languages is that better methods have been worked out for teaching foreign languages than for teaching other subjects, should colleges continue to require foreign languages, or take steps to insure equally efficient instruction in other subjects both in the high school and in the university?

14. Of what practical use to an advanced scholar in other subjects than foreign languages is the degree of ability to use foreign languages which is brought out by the present examinations for doctors' degrees?

15. Should the major professor in charge of the work of a candidate for a doctor's degree certify not merely to the ability of a student to use the foreign-language resources in that department, but also to the fact that this student has actually been making use of such resources?

16. What justification is there for compelling college men and women to take modern and foreign languages, besides keeping no one knows how many other qualified students out of college, when distinguished leaders in all professions including college managers never had one of those languages?

17. How far does actual practice show that the study of foreign languages produces the results defined in the above statement of the dean of a college of arts which does the teaching?

18. Should all elementary language courses be called subfreshman courses without credit, and be shifted as rapidly as possible to high schools?[1]

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[1] *Ibid.*, pages 301–308.

No teacher should fail to profit by careful and repeated perusal and study of the questions here raised. However, they concern themselves largely with administrative aspects. They seek to test the product at the completion of the course. Teachers will therefore, no doubt, raise many additional questions, study of which will throw additional light upon the daily procedures, aims, and methods, and bring out information regarding undergraduate departmental practice and efficiency. Some such are here suggested:

First year. To what extent, in per cent, is the foreign language the means of communication in the classroom on an average during the first 12 weeks? the second? the third? What part (in percentage) of this foreign speech is spoken by the students? by the instructor? Is pronunciation of the class poor, fair, good, or excellent? If poor or fair, what do you attribute it to? How is pronunciation taught? When principally? How much time is devoted to it? Is there a sound-chart available? Does the teacher instruct the learner how to place his organs of speech in order to pronounce correctly? Is expressive reading practiced? Other oral exercises?

Reading. How is reading taught during the first year? What per cent of time is devoted to quizzing in the foreign language? Does the instructor insist on answers in the foreign language? What per cent of the time is devoted to retelling in the foreign language? to translating? to oral reading? to mutation, or composition exercises? to other exercises? Describe the latter.

Are there any development exercises? Describe them. Are there any instructions how to study? Describe them. What texts are used during the first year? How far are they completed? Are there any provisions for slow and fast workers? Describe them.

Answer all of these questions under "Reading" also for the second, third, and fourth years, and the following concerning extensive reading in addition: How often taught? How many pages per day? In what texts? How assigned? How is the recitation conducted? Any outside or optional reading? How large a percentage of the class doing this?

How many pages read on an average by these persons during the year? What library books are available for this purpose?

Oral work. Is oral work taught by itself? If so, how much time, in per cent, devoted to it? Describe the method of teaching it. What texts are used? What is the method of testing?

Answer these questions also for second, third, and fourth years.

Written work. How much time, in per cent, is devoted to written work? What texts, or parts of texts, are completed? What are the kinds of work used, what proportion of each? What method of correcting for each kind? Any mimeographed instructions to class? What provision for slow and fast workers?

Answer these questions also for the second, third, and fourth years.

Teaching the foreign civilization. What book(s) for this purpose wholly completed? If only partly completed, how far? How much map work is done? What helps for this purpose used? What illustrative material is used? What other material for teaching the foreign civilization is available?

Answer these questions also for the second, third, and fourth years.

General. Any other opportunities offered the learner for perfecting himself in the foreign language? Describe them.

ITALIAN AND SCANDINAVIAN AS HIGH-SCHOOL AND COLLEGE STUDIES

Italian as a high-school subject has made little progress beyond what was reported in 1913.[1] So far, only Boston with a great Italian population teaches Italian in one school, while in New York City attempts to introduce it have netted little to date. Neither is the outlook good, since, as has been shown by recent writings, an attempt to achieve for Italian rightful notice as a school study[2] was immediately met by strong opposition on the part of teachers of Spanish and French,[1] although, as one writer states, Italian is generally only "a sort of tail for the French kite" anyway.

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[1] Handschin, C. H., *The Teaching of Modern Languages in the United States*, pages 85–86.

[2] Wilkens, E. H., "Italian and Spanish in American Education," Bulletin 9 of New England Modern Language Association, May, 1919.

However, with the growing importance of Italy in the world of affairs, with a fuller recognition of the value of the Italian literature, and by dint of the agencies[2] instituted to emphasize the importance of things Italian, a change is bound to come in favor of Italian studies.

Professor O. J. Moore has stated the points in favor of Italian studies, and an imposing array it is, to be sure.[3] This advocate of Italian believes that it should find a place in the high schools, not to displace the other modern languages, but as an introduction to elementary Latin.

Another writer[4] claims a place for Italian as a school study for the sake of its euphony and the simplicity of its phonetics.

In view of these facts, we may well expect that Italian will become an optional study in the upper years of the high school. Before this is possible, however, a supply of texts will need to be created and the facilities for training teachers produced, both of which are now entirely possible in view of the small but excellent corps of professors of Italian now in our universities. We may presume, however, that for the immediate present the citadel of Italian studies will remain in the universities.

In these, Italian has stood well for many years. As shown in 1913,[1] 66 out of a list of 174 colleges and universities offered some work in Italian, and on the wave of kindly feeling toward Italy, as one of our allies in the war, considerable impetus has been added to this work.

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[1] Cebrian, J. C., "On Italian and Spanish in American Education," *Hispania*, 3: 5–10; Doyle, H. G., "Tumefaction in the Study of Spanish," *ibid.*, 3: 133–143.

[2] Among these may be mentioned the journal, *Italy Today;* Italy-America Society, 23 West 43d Street, New York; National Dante Committee, 23 West 43d Street, New York, to promote recognition of the 600th Anniversary of Dante's death, 1921.

[3] "Italian in the High Schools," *Modern Language Journal*, 3: 237–245, 1919. See also *ibid.*, 6: 197–202.

[4] Downer, C. A., "Italian as a Universal Language," *Italy Today*, 1: 305.

A committee of the Modern Language Association, reporting as to first-year Italian in college, deplores the fact that it has not been taught by the direct method. The report gives also useful outlines for the first-year work.[2]

A most useful list of books for classes in Italian has been published, and other similar lists are promised and may be looked for in the same journal.[3]

As to Italian in the postgraduate work, the following facts may be given for 1913. Sixteen universities offered graduate courses in Italian, including beginning Italian; the language and literature of various epochs; intellectual and contemporary movements. The most popular courses, as to number of times offered, were: historical grammar, early Italian — probably including language and literature — and Dante.[4]

These courses were offered by teachers holding the following titles: Instructor Romance Languages, 2; Professor Romance Languages, 12; Professor French Philology and Italian, 1; Professor of Italian, 2; Instructor Modern Languages, 1; Instructor in Italian, 1; Lecturer in Romanics, Professor of French and Italian, 1.

SCANDINAVIAN

Although Scandinavian, principally Dano-Norwegian, — sometimes called Norse, — has been taught in the universities for more than half a century, beginning in New York

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[1] Handschin, *op. cit.*, pages 85–86.

[2] *Modern Language Journal*, 2: 273–274, 1918.

[3] *Ibid.*, 4: 226–228, 1920.

[4] From Handschin, C. H., *Facilities for Graduate Instruction in the United States* (Miami University Publications; 1914). 96 pages.

University in 1858, it is primarily as a high-school subject that it has made its recent advance. This is due, not chiefly to the excellence of its literatures — although this is not denied — nor to the importance of the Scandinavian trade, but to the fact of the dense Scandinavian population of our Northwestern states. For it is entirely in these states that Scandinavian has taken root as a high-school study. A few figures may indicate to what extent. In Minneapolis 4 of the 5 high schools, in Minnesota 49 towns and cities, in North Dakota 35, in Iowa 7, in Illinois 5, in Wisconsin 4, in Nebraska 2 towns and cities taught Scandinavian in 1916–17.[1] Other states in which it is taught in the public schools are: South Dakota, Idaho, New York, Washington,[2] and, judging by reported programs, several others by now.

As to the number of pupils registered, Miss Maren Michelet, educational secretary of the Society for Scandinavian Study, reporting the enrollments for the year 1916–17, states that not all the questionnaires sent out were answered and says, "It is definitely known that in some places Norse and Swedish are taught where the blanks were not filled out and returned."[3] The figures she gives for 1916–17 are: 63 schools in 8 states had a total enrollment of 1380 for Norse and 918 for Swedish — total, 2298. For Minneapolis the following figures were given: second semester, 1916–17, Norse, 343, Swedish, 397 — total, 740.

As to the school texts, a considerable number are now available in American editions. Any one interested can find the titles almost complete in the lists of the following publishers: Augustana Book Concern, Rock Island, Illinois; Augsburg Publishing House, 425–429 4th Street, South, Minneapolis; the Free Church Book Concern, 322 Cedar

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[1] *Northern Review*, 3: 13 ff., December, 1917.

[2] *Ibid.*, 3: 22, January, 1918.

[3] *Ibid.*, 3: 21, January, 1918.

Avenue, Minneapolis; the John Anderson Publishing Company, Chicago; the Engberg Holmberg Company, 901 Belmont Avenue, Chicago; the Albert Bonner Publishing House, 561 3d Avenue, New York City. A few texts have also been issued by our regular prominent publishers of modern-language texts.

The direct method seems to be used to a considerable extent in the instruction, but progress must certainly lie in the direction of producing and using more real direct-method texts, adapted to the needs of Scandinavian children.

Since I have followed this Scandinavian movement with interest for years, and have come into contact with it pleasantly at various points, I may be pardoned for setting down here a few thoughts which may be of value to some. As an officer of the National Federation of Modern Language Teachers, it has seemed to me that if this Scandinavian movement is to be maintained it must be brought more thoroughly into connection with the general modern-language work. Teachers of Scandinavian are not sufficiently identified with the various modern-language associations. Articles on teaching Scandinavian will be welcomed in the *Modern Language Journal.* Syllabi for Scandinavian languages should be set up, as for the other modern languages, by regularly constituted committees of the National Federation of Modern Language Teachers, or of the various state modern-language associations. The problems of teaching should be discussed with teachers of the other languages at the meetings of modern language associations. The textbook-makers should make use of the latest researches and the latest experience of modern-language teachers.

It is not that there is a separatist movement in the ranks of the teachers of Scandinavian. It seems rather a retirement, quite in keeping with the genuinely modest character of these sterling peoples. However, in modern-language teaching, unity and coöperation are more to be emphasized even than in other branches, and thorough standardization of a school subject necessitates correlation with the other subjects of the curriculum.

That Scandinavian has a rightful claim upon the attention of the American public needs hardly to be urged. It is generally conceded. That this instruction be thoroughly standardized and made to produce the greatest possible good for rising Americans, must be the concern of all school men as well as of the general public.

In writing this I am not unmindful of the fact that the teachers of Scandinavian have for ten years had an excellent organ in the *Publications of the Society for the Advancement of Scandinavian Study,*[1] now called *Scandinavian Studies and Notes,*[2] which, beginning with Volume 4, has a special "Pedagogical Section," devoted entirely to problems of teaching. This Pedagogical Section is not only highly useful, but is high-class in every way and comparable to the best publications of the kind.

In writing as I have above, I am mirroring the excellent attitude taken in the journals quoted above by the teachers of Scandinavian themselves. For instance, the failure of teachers of Scandinavian to mix with those teaching other languages is there noted; the question of the direct method as applied to teaching Scandinavian is discussed; and in an article on Scandinavian as taught in the *lower* grades, the excellent stand is taken that this is undesirable from the American viewpoint, since especially the children of foreign-born parents need all the training in Americanism, general school branches, and particularly in English, which they can get.

The teacher-training, also, has been discussed, and it has been recorded that the English of the teachers is occasionally found wanting. Emphasis on the need of more and better textbooks has been stressed, and syllabi for both Norse and Swedish set up and printed. All of the articles here referred to have been listed in Appendix A, to which the reader is referred.

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[1] Urbana, Illinois.

[2] Published at 450–454 Ahnaip Street, Menasha, Wisconsin.

Scandinavian as a college and university study was thoroughly treated by Professor George T. Flom in 1907.[1] From the outstanding facts of this survey we may quote as follows: Instruction in one or more of the Scandinavian languages was given in 1907, or previously, at 31 universities of the United States, covering every section of the country. The courses given are described, and the persons giving them mentioned. This does not include instruction in the 14 Scandinavian colleges, mostly supported by the Lutheran church, and scattered through Iowa, Minnesota, Nebraska, North Dakota, South Dakota, Illinois, Kansas, and New Jersey. An exhaustive bibliography of American publications on Scandinavian language and literature is appended.

A later account of this instruction in graduate schools, which takes in practically all instruction in Scandinavian in the United States, except the church colleges mentioned above, shows that in 1913 courses in Scandinavian, including Old Norse and Icelandic, were given in 22 universities.[2] The subject of the course is given in each case under the name of the instructor. The subjects range from elementary instruction in the language and literature, to Old Norse, philology, mythology, paleography, with Old Norse leading as to number of times given.

The instructors are, as to title held: Instructor in Germanics, 3; Professor of Scandinavian, 4; Professor of Germanics, 14; Professor of German and Scandinavian, 2; Lecturer in Scandinavian, 1; Professor of English, 1; Professor of Comparative Philology, 1.

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[1] *A History of Scandinavian Studies in American Universities,* Bulletin of the Iowa State University, New Series No. 153, May, 1907. 66 pages.

[2] These facts are compiled from Handschin, C. H., *The Facilities for Graduate Instruction in Modern Languages in the United States.*

The study seems to be growing in popularity, and the high scholarship of the instructors is attested by their excellent scholarly writings, a fair index of which is found, currently, in the Publications of the Society for the Advancement of Scandinavian Study and in the publications of the American Scandinavian Foundation.[1]

A FEW ADDITIONAL DESIDERATA FOR THE MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHERS OF THE UNITED STATES

A central organ or medium for the elucidation of difficult passages in texts is a desideratum for modern-language teachers. Such an institution has proved valuable in Germany.[2] It would not only afford aid, especially to the younger members of the profession, but might afford a stimulating interchange of ideas and call attention to many a difficult passage, capable of various interpretations. For our purposes a department in the *Modern Language Journal* might well serve this purpose.

Future plans for the advancement of our branch of study should include a society and bureau for experimental pedagogy, upon the lines of the National Society for the Study of Education,[3] with additional features of the Leipziger Institut für experimentelle Pädagogik. Broad experimental studies in modern-language teaching should be its province, and it should outline and initiate work which may later be carried on in many centers and schools.

[1] Address: 25 West 45th Street, New York.

[2] Die Zentralstelle für Schriftsteller-Erklärung. Address: K. Meyer, Dresden, Frankenstr. 6.

[3] See its yearbook, published by the University of Chicago Press.

When the *Modern Language Journal* has settled down to a sufficient subscription list, and has enlarged its work by the addition of several necessary departments, it will be time to think and plan for such an institution. It should be catholic, should include the investigation for all of the modern languages concerned, and should represent the whole country, with constituent groups in East and West. For such broad study cannot base upon individual researches of isolated students alone. It must include experimentation involving scores of thousands of students, and the work of numerous scholars, as has been shown in other lines of experimentation.

Problems

Is there any scientific basis for laying the stress on different classes of words (nouns, verbs, adjectives, etc.) in teaching children of 7 to 10, or 12 to 14 years of age? Cf. Stern, W., *Die Aussage als Geistige Leistung und als Verhörsprodukt*, Erster Teil (Leipzig; 1904).

What is clandestine reading, and how should the modern-language teacher, in your opinion, take cognizance of it? What is the reading craze of adolescence? Can it, in your opinion, be utilized in teaching modern languages? Cf. Trettien, "The Language Interest of Children," *Pedagogical Seminary*, 11 : 160.

At what age, do you think, should the appeal in teaching be shifted from the feelings to the reason of the pupil?

Which is more profitable in junior high school, drill work or problem-solving? Cf. Colvin, *The Learning Process*, pages 173 ff.

CHAPTER FIFTEEN

PROBLEMS OF ADMINISTRATION

SOME of the problems concerning which administrative officers may desire the opinion of teachers and specialists in modern languages are: (1) the size of classes; (2) the best number of recitations per week; (3) the minimum number of years of work in a modern language which will be accepted by schools for credit; (4) the minimum number of years of a foreign language which a school should offer; (5) how many modern foreign languages a school should offer; (6) and how many modern foreign languages a student should be allowed to pursue; (7) in what courses, if any, modern languages should be compulsory; (8) in what year of the high school the study of modern languages should be begun; (9) in what succession modern languages should be studied; (10) what correlations with other studies can and should be made in the teaching of modern languages; (11) what per cent of oral and written work shall be included in the course; (12) what are good criteria for the selection of modern-language teachers; (13) how those who employ modern-language teachers can aid in the betterment of this instruction; and (14) what kinds of texts should be used and what amounts covered in a two-, four-, or six-year course.

That the use of a direct method entails decreasing the size of classes is certain. The general opinion held by experts in the matter is that good work cannot be done with more than 25 students in a section. Where the number exceeds this, opportunity to speak is so meager as to be of little or no value.[1] The volume of work which must be corrected, which also is larger than under the old method, prohibits large sections, unless an assistant reader is furnished.

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[1] Breymann, H., *op. cit.*, page 126 (1895). Breymann, surveying conditions in Germany, shows that this view is generally held there also.

A questionnaire sent out by the Modern Language Section of the High School Conference of the University of Illinois, in 1915, brought out the following vote on the question: Do you approve of limiting all language classes to a registration of not more than 20? Yes, 249; no, 49; silent, 17.[1]

That one, two, or three periods per week for beginning a modern language are not so good, proportionally, as five or more is a fact well recognized by students of education; because of interest which has to be worked up anew, and the teacher's irritation over this, but more especially because in learning a spoken language so much depends upon habituation. There is, with the more frequent recitations, less loss of time in working back into the habits and into the frame of mind necessary. If mere translation is to be done, this factor is less important, and fewer recitations per week do very well.

The minimum number of years of a modern language which should be accepted for credit, it is quite generally agreed, is two, as may be seen by referring to the requirements of most colleges. This practice is growing also in high schools.

There is, to be sure, an incipient movement among colleges in recent years to accept any credits offered for graduation. However, even the institutions most radical in this movement insist that all credits offered must be "coherent." A year of German, one of French, and one of Spanish are not "coherent," and what is more significant, they have brought the student little practical good. For after one year of a language his ability to read, write, or speak it is not sufficient to be of great practical value.

It is well known also that it is, as a rule, the weak or the lazy student who leaves a study as soon as it proves at all difficult, and seeks another which he hopes will be easier, and thus pieces together odds and ends which have only a minimum of value from any point of view.

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[1] University of Illinois Bulletin, Vol. 13, No. 21, pages 296 ff., 1916. According to Breymann, *Neusprachliche Reformliteratur*, 3: 126, this view that 20–25 pupils in a section is best is held in Germany also.

To discourage this sort of thing is the object of the rather common rule that no less than two years of a modern language will regularly be accepted for credit.[1]

Under this same head comes the question of the minimum number of years of a modern language which a school should offer. Here also our best high-school practice is: no less than two — which is also the minimum entrance requirement of the standard colleges, and the least time in which anything of sufficient value can be imparted by the direct method.

The question how many modern languages a school shall offer is quite naturally solved, for the great majority of high schools, by the limitation of facilities. The great majority of high schools cannot undertake more than two languages, which, in this case are, for the greater portion of the United States, Latin and one modern language.

The question how many languages the individual student shall study stands in need of a revision. Our practice has been loose in this. Students who were talented in languages naturally continued to study one language after another, thus getting a one-sidedly linguistic training, or, worse still, took, and take, 2 or 3 years of 3 or 4 different languages without achieving mastery in any one.

The conviction has been growing for some years among us, and I notice that it has been expressed repeatedly in Europe, in French, German, and British educational journals, that the number of languages which a student takes should be restricted to 1 as a major and 1 as a minor study, which should signify practical mastery in the one, and fair attainment for practical ends in the other.[1]

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[1] Since, as has been shown (Aaron, A. W., "Relative Accomplishments of Beginners in German in High School and College," *Modern Language Journal*, 3 : 246–250), two years of high school is equal to one year's work in foreign language in college, it is generally impossible for a high-school pupil to go on advantageously in college modern-language classes unless he has had two years of it in high school.

This must certainly be our course for the future. If French, German, or Spanish is elected for a major subject by a student specializing in languages, one of the three may wisely be elected as a minor, if for no other reason than that such teaching combinations are sure to be found in great numbers of high schools.

For the person who specializes in one of these languages, at least 4 years of it in high school seems imperative, with 4 years more for the work in literature and philology, to be taken at college.

This brings up the question whether modern languages shall be compulsory, or not, in high school and college. Here we must differentiate between (1) the old-style course in which the humanities were, and are, compulsory; and (2) the wide-open elective system; and (3) a group-system in which the subject in which the student proposes to specialize, and its cognates, are compulsory. That we are growing away from the first plan is plain. But wherever such courses are maintained, modern languages must be a part of them. The wide-open elective system, a peculiarly American arrangement, has been given a thorough trial, and, unless all indications deceive, it will be just as thoroughly discarded wherever it is a question of giving thorough training. The principle of election is, of course, retained, with wise restrictions, in the cognate group system, which is now in the ascendancy and which is our compromise between the two other plans named above.

In which of the various groups of cognate studies modern languages shall be included depends upon the value which they can demonstrably give to the candidates in those groups. A perusal of catalogues and programs shows that one or more modern languages, or a certain minimum of credits in modern language, are prevalently compulsory in science, engineering, agriculture, commerce, consular service, business, journalism, language and liberal-arts groups, and some others.

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[1] Kirkman, *op. cit.*, page 26; *Die neueren Sprachen*, 23: 5.

Whether modern language can continue to make good its claim to the patronage of these groups depends upon whether it can give them enough of value. To do this, those who need to learn to read (translate) only, must be taught to do so with sufficient facility in a two-years' course. For this purpose, the maturer years are well adapted. Those who need to learn to speak and write must, indeed, devote four or five hours a week to it throughout the entire high-school and college course; but then they must really be able to handle the foreign language, both speaking and writing it, in a practical situation.

That future modern-language teachers must pursue such a course as this is recognized by all. That consular candidates and commercial students must receive an equal training will be increasingly recognized as our trade relations with South America grow and those with Germany and France are taken up again normally. The practical side of this has apparently not yet been recognized by our business interests. South America is looming larger every year, and we must recollect, too, that our trade with Germany, for instance, before the war was twice that with all of the Spanish-American countries taken together.

If time shall show the wisdom of less compulsion for foreign languages, then surely a compensating change will occur, namely: less students of modern languages, but more modern language for the student. And besides, if modern language can show its value, it will hold its own, compulsory or not.

But in the junior high school, I think, time will show that modern language must be compulsory for most groups. Here certainly, if not also in the senior high school, the old ideal of liberal training — that is, non-vocational training — must be adhered to. Even here, vocational work has its place for those groups who will not go on to the senior high school. But for the greater group who can go on, this period must be made one for liberal training, as must also the senior high school for those who intend to go on to college or professional school.

In the entire high school, that course or courses which stand for non-vocational education must include, it would seem, besides the mother tongue: mathematics, foreign language, social, natural, and biological science.

That modern language, if the student is to be given a speaking knowledge, should be started in the junior, not the senior, high school, is a point so well established that I need not argue it here.[1] (For more detailed discussion of this point see Chapter XIV.) The main points of interest for administrative officers are: (1) The language coördinations are formed primarily during this period. (2) Memory for linguistic forms is best at this period and a considerable part of the work in *elementary* language is memorial. (3) A number of high-school subjects — as mathematics, science, economics — make more demand upon reflective thought and may most wisely be postponed to a later time in the course.

The question of the succession in which foreign languages should be studied is a moot one. Some believe the ancient languages should be taken up first, while the growing opinion among students of education seems to incline to the opposite view. The argument for the first view is the historical one; i.e., follow up the chronological order, find the bases of our modern tongues first, before studying these tongues themselves. The arguments for the opposite view are: (1) We should proceed from the known to the unknown and from the less remote to the more remote. (2) The modern languages are learned more as a matter of habituation of the speech apparatus, the dead languages more as a matter of ratiocination; consequently the modern language should come first. It might be added also as to Latin that it is not the best language for adolescents, since it has no literature for them but only for adults.

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[1] I quote only a few opinions of educators who are in agreement with this view. Cf. O'Shea, M. V., *Linguistic Development and Education,* pages 322 ff. (The Macmillan Company, New York; 1907); Hall, G. S., "Some Psychological Aspects of Teaching Modern Languages," *Pedagogical Seminary,* 21: 256 ff., 1914; Trettien, A. W., "Psychology of the Language Interest of Children," *Pedagogical Seminary,* 11: 113–117, 1904, etc.

The succession in which *modern* languages should be studied will also be perfectly plain as soon as we enter more completely upon our new program outlined in the foregoing pages; the major language will be started first; the minor, as soon as the elementary or intermediate stage of the first has been passed; that is, not before the candidate is well grounded in the major, and not too late to catch the speech organs in pliable condition for the assimilation of the minor as a spoken language.

The proper correlation of teaching must be, to some extent, an administrative matter; that is, not merely to decree and manage, but to encourage and foster. That we have done too little toward connecting up the various branches of study in the child's mind is well recognized. As a consequence, his knowledge is not thoroughly available, because the necessary cross-relations have not been pointed out, nor practiced, and hence have had no chance of becoming habitual, as they should. This any one can test, practically, by asking the average class anything pertaining to any subject other than the one in hand at the time. It will be a surprise to them, and they will make a poor showing in it.

The teacher is interested in correlating studies in that it makes possible the use of illustrations and analogies drawn from other branches, and emphasizes the solidarity of all knowledge.

Among the modern-language departments and other language departments, including English, the first step, that of providing a uniform terminology for grammar, has already been taken. The Report of the Joint Committee on Grammatical Nomenclature of the National Education Association, Modern Language Association, and American Philological Association [1] provides such a terminology, which should be studied, and put into use as speedily as possible by language teachers.[2]

That European history, and French, German, or Spanish literary and linguistic history should be correlated in the student's mind is highly desirable. The teachers of modern languages are awake to this and have, through the informational texts concerning the foreign countries, worked up these relations — in an elementary way, to be sure — both for past and for contemporary history and literature. That these teachers are not sufficiently informed about the content of the history courses given in their schools is true. To aid here is the part of the administration; that is, to bring together a conspectus of the contents of the various courses given in the school, so that a teacher can inform himself, without seeming to pry into another's business, of what his students are studying in the other branches.

History teachers as well as others — if I may write it here — need to pay more attention to the literary, if not to the linguistic, history of the countries whose history they teach. This should, of course, be provided for in their training. A teacher of French, German, or Spanish history who is not conversant with the languages of the countries is not properly equipped. His knowledge is second-hand, or worse. He knows not the spirit of the nation he is seeking to interpret. If he needs to know the physical geography of the nation, he needs to know its mental geography as well. Many history teachers seem to live in happy ignorance of the fact that the nation whose history they are teaching is being interpreted *at first hand* within the walls of their own school, while they often are colporting second-hand knowledge about the subject, entirely oblivious of what their students already know of the subject. If the history teacher thinks that the modern-language teacher's method of teaching history is poor, very well; but the fact still remains that the student has had considerable interest in the subject aroused. This, according to good pedagogy, is the proper point of departure for the teacher of history; he must utilize this interest.

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[1] Published by the National Education Association, July, 1913. 31 pages.

[2] Cf. also, as to correlating the teaching of the various languages, Inglis, A., *Teachers College Record*, Vol. 10, No. 2, pages 63–78, 1909.

Lest it be supposed that I advocate an attitude of mutual correction and criticism on the part of teachers of different branches, let me hasten to add that this would be the very last thing which we should cultivate. The spirit in which all correlating must be carried out is that of mutual help and respect between teachers.

The modern-language teacher needs to inform himself of the content of the courses with which he can coöperate in establishing fruitful correlations, and seek to articulate with them wherever possible. A pertinent suggestion is: Seek out readings containing historical data, or allusions, or what we may presume the student to know because of his study of history, and seek to draw this out of him. This is best done in the development lesson. Sometimes a moot point may be assigned, to be reported on at the next period.

The fact that our elective system brings into the class some students who have, and others who have not, had the course in European history, presents a difficulty, but not an insuperable one. After such data have been presented to the class by a student, all should be held responsible for it, irrespective of whether the individual has or has not had the history course.[1]

Mutatis mutandis, the same principles apply to geography. In teaching map-work, in developing informational texts, one will need often to touch on points of descriptive, industrial, and economic geography, as well as upon sociology and government.

A scheme for correlating modern language with art-instruction has been worked out and practiced in the Francis Parker School, Chicago. A report on it is available.[2]

A valuable article, full of concrete illustrations,[3] shows how the principle of cognates may be used to fix meanings of German and French words by connecting them with their English cognates. This article shows further that two thirds of the German nouns have English cognates, all but one sixth of which are also exact semantic equivalents. A count of French cognates in English would show similar percentages. In Chapter V it was shown how these facts may be utilized for the assimilation of the vocabulary; here it is a question of getting the teachers of English, French, German, and Spanish to coöperate in calling attention to the cognates, thus strengthening the associations which help to recall the word. In the case of Spanish, the correlations with Latin will be more fruitful.

An excellent book on the correlations between French and Latin [4] will serve the Spanish teacher, also, while some good suggestions on correlating German with other branches are set forth by Silberberg.[1]

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[1] Suggestive outlines for this correlation are available. Cf. Hutton and Kitson, *Modern Language Teaching* (London), 10 : 45 ff.

[2] Merrill, A. G., *Elementary School Teacher,* 8 : 289–300, 1908.

[3] Chamberlain, W. A., "The Comparative Study of Words in Foreign Languages," *School Review,* 13 : 315–323, 1905.

[4] Jorz, *Einführung ins Französische auf Lateinischer Grundlage* (Leipzig; 1909). For useful helps in correlating French and Spanish see Krause, C. A., *Modern Language Journal,* 3 : 292–299.

What amount of oral work should be done in modern-language classes is a question to which administrative officers often seek an expert answer. For the general run of classes taught by the direct method, or approximations of this, we may essay to give a good working rule: If at any stage of the study the class habitually handles the recitation on the reading lessons, including therein question and answer and all the necessary directions and responses, in the foreign language, and if this is done with good pronunciation and some spontaneity — with a minimum of three fourths of the original sentences correct — then there has been an abundance of effective oral work.

The same question is often asked regarding the amount of written work. Here likewise a good working rule is: If the class, on an average, writes correctly all matter which it can handle correctly in speaking — for instance, the questions and answers which they compose and speak in reciting on the reading lesson — then there has been enough efficient written work given.

CRITERIA FOR THE SELECTION OF TEACHERS

The profession of modern-language teaching needs the support of administrative officers, if the movement toward betterment of this teaching is to be a success. No matter how thoroughly the standard colleges and universities may train their candidates, if administrative officers continue to hire less well-trained candidates for practically the same salaries; or, worse still, if they hire teachers trained to teach modern languages and set them to teaching other subjects; or if they hire persons not trained to teach modern languages and set them to teaching these; if they do not provide intelligent, up-to-date supervision, so as to encourage the best methods; if they do not furnish at least the minimum of the physical equipment necessary for good teaching; if they do not encourage the teachers in some material way to continue their training by periodic sojourn in the country whose language they teach, then our labor is nullified and progress is halted.

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[1] Silberberg, B., *Monatshefte für Deutsche Sprache und Pädagogik*, 4: 82–87, 113–118, 1903.

Administrative officers should know, also, that a marked tendency of the day is not to allow teachers to undertake the oral work unless their ability to do so is certified to by the proper authorities; either the state department of education, or the department in which the candidate has been trained, and that should be, of course, in a training school or college of the best standing.

The state of New York has, since 1911–12, held to this policy of approving and, since 1915, of examining, teachers for this oral work, with the most excellent results.[1]

Further, administrative officers should note the growing tendency to license teachers by subjects. If a school is to make any claim to being standard, its teachers must be hired to teach a specific subject, or subjects, and because of special training for this. The old way, still too often met with, was to hire the requisite number of persons, and then, perhaps a few weeks — or even days — before the opening of school, to parcel out the subjects among them, *bon gré mal gré*, to suit administrative exigencies.

The superintendent who does this is making a mistake. That he has small funds available is no sufficient excuse. He should give the teacher, who must perforce teach three or more subjects, the longest possible time to prepare for this. Efficient choice is possible, even under these circumstances, if the superintendent makes his needs known widely enough to such schools as will specify in what branches the candidate has actually been trained, and the line in which his practice-teaching was done.

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[1] Cf. *Modern Language Journal,* **1 : 125–135.**

As to teachers for first-class high schools, we are certainly coming to the general principle that they should be trained to teach *two* branches only. Today, training for three branches is still more generally the rule. However, we all recognize that, in this case, the candidate's acquisition in one or more of these branches is light, and certainly that he has not had observation and practice-teaching in at least one of the three.

Unless a candidate has carried a subject practically through his entire college course and has had at least directed observation in the teaching of the subject — if not practice-teaching — he cannot be considered a specialist in that branch. It can be readily seen, too, that time for three specialties is not available in a college course. There must be at least 20 hours of education, inclusive of observation and practice-teaching; and the 2 major subjects, or specialties, need to be carried practically 4 hours per week throughout the 4 years. This amounts to 84 hours, or credits, which leaves only 36 for all required work, including physical education.

From this it is evident that schools which must hire teachers to teach more than two subjects cannot get specialists, or rather, they must be content with teachers who are specialists in one department, with fair training in the others. From this we see the importance of choosing the teacher so that he can at least teach the one branch in which he has had excellent training. By selecting and assigning the staff of a minor high school in this way, the superintendent can bring it about that a fair number of the branches shall be taught by teachers with special and excellent training in those branches.

The Report of the Committee on the Collegiate Training of Teachers of Modern Languages of the Modern Language Association of America[1] advocates adding a year of graduate work to our present teacher-training courses, and numerous educators have in recent years expressed themselves similarly. The further suggestion has also been put forth[2] that this year, which shall be taken after graduation from college, shall be a practice year and a postgraduate year, in one. Or again, it has been suggested that half of this year be spent abroad and the other half in practice-teaching in the United States.[3]

Another plan which has been brought forward is to have the candidate, while yet an undergraduate, spend a year in foreign sojourn under the supervision of an American professor who shall be stationed in the foreign country and who shall have general supervision of the work of the American teachers-in-training. This plan has not met with favor.

That school systems, through their boards and officers, must encourage the plan which is finally adopted, if it is to be a success, is patent. For one thing such candidates, after spending an extra year on their training, will necessarily demand larger salaries than others.

However, administrative officers are still more concerned with those teachers who are already in service and who need a sojourn —in many cases a first sojourn — in the foreign country. Both the National Education Association and the Modern Language Association of America committees quoted above, as well as numerous teachers' associations, have recommended that some plan of leave for foreign sojourn be worked out. The Modern Language Association report[4] says on this point: "Many hope that under carefully guarded restrictions it might ultimately be possible to secure part, or even full, pay for such time spent in study abroad."

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[1] The unprinted report quoted in Chapter XVI, page 357.

[2] Brown, J. F., *The Training of Teachers for Secondary Schools,* page 278 (The Macmillan Company, New York; 1911).

[3] Snedden, D., *Publications of the New England Modern Language Association,* 5 : 39 ff.

[4] The unprinted report quoted in Chapter XVI, page 357.

There are several other ways of accomplishing the end, all of which will, without doubt, be taken up soon, together with all proposals from whatever source, and a working scheme set on foot which, it is to be hoped, many boards of education will see fit to embrace.

Such steps must be taken if the thing is to be accomplished, for the teacher cannot undertake foreign sojourn with his own means without courting financial ruin.

Administrative officers should recognize, once for all, that modern-language teachers are in a class by themselves when it comes to the expense of the training involved. Practically all others can get their training at home; modern-language teachers must have a foreign sojourn, if possible, before starting on their teaching, and, most certainly, *sometime.*

Modern-language teachers should command higher salaries, and since this seems unattainable, we must recognize that the considerable expense of foreign sojourn must be met somehow, and not by the candidate.

In Chapter XVI is found some discussion of the facilities for foreign sojourn and what the teacher may expect to get from it. This should be of interest to administrative officers also, as well as the discussion of surveys in Chapter XIV.

The modern-language teacher is in a class by himself also, when it comes to the taxing nature of his work. The high mortality resulting from this wear and tear is a well-recognized fact in Germany, where most careful observations have been made on it, and the demand has there been set up that modern-language teachers should have their teaching burden lightened.[1]

The aims, texts, and amounts of work of a two- and a four-year course have been studied by numerous committees. It is thought best for our purpose to reprint the most authoritative report on the subject rather than to attempt to establish another set of standards. The report of the Association of Modern Language Teachers of the Central West and South is most important, since it reflects and provides for post-war conditions and has had the advantage of being reviewed by the largest single modern-language association of the United States. The National Federation of Modern Language Teachers has collaborated with the Modern Language Association of America in a terse statement of aims, which is worthy of the careful study of teachers. This report is printed, with the others mentioned, in Appendix B. Persons interested in specific outlines for a six-year course in French are referred to the course given in the elementary and high school of the University of Chicago, outlines of which were published in *Modern Language Journal*, 3 : 193–213, 251–276, 300–323, 368–376. For a similar seven-year course in German given in the same schools see *Modern Language Journal*, 3 : 100–115, 1918.

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[1] Breymann, Vol. 2, 77, where the author quotes statistics to show this mortality. Cf. also *Die Neueren Sprachen,* **22**: 186–189.

A general survey of the modern-language situation in secondary schools of the United States is now being planned under the care of the National Federation of Modern Language Teachers. The report on this survey will be the *magna charta* of modern-language work of the future. Teachers should look for its publication. No report but one based on such a thorough scientific survey can in the future possess any authority, even if sponsored by the greatest national body of teachers.

Problems

Write out, for discussion, any problems of administration which you may have met with in your teaching, together with your proposed solution in each case.

If you have not taught, write out a summary of the school law of your state relating to lighting, heating, and ventilation required in school buildings. Also summarize the law of your state regarding the employment of minor boys and girls in the industries (child-labor law).

CHAPTER SIXTEEN

TEACHER-TRAINING

THE great burden of producing good teachers of modern languages falls on the standard colleges and universities. Teachers teach as they have been taught. The deviations from this rule are so slight that it is only when teachers put idealism, self-effacement, and enthusiasm into their work, and when the public is wide awake to the need of bettering the teaching, that marked improvement in teaching becomes possible.

We in the United States have too low an estimate of the value of schools and of teaching. True, we have the schoolhouses and, to some extent, the apparatus; but as to being willing to pay the price of good teaching or attaching the proper significance to the profession of teaching, to this we have never yet awakened. Teachers, however, are idealists. The opportunity of teaching the truth and of guiding the growing generation to enlightened citizenship attracts such persons in spite of poor remuneration.

For the public, however, other considerations should at this time be useful. Of how much value is truth when taught by a poorly paid, little-respected class? Rousseau tells us that a slave cannot rear free men. This means that without the proper emoluments and public honor, or respect, attaching to the office of the teacher, all teaching may be neutralized by any chance ideas which run contrary to the truth as taught in the schools and by the scholars of a nation. But without good teaching in the schools no nation can long survive.

This condition of affairs means that self-sacrificing idealism must be the first trait in the teacher, and young candidates who have any other philosophy of life should turn back at once and seek other fields. The public, on the other hand, must learn to appreciate that the teacher's goods are not material goods. Are they, therefore, less valuable or less important? Is education merely one of the articles of commerce to be bartered for at the lowest possible market price? If so, then the teaching profession is sacrificing far too much for it.

The question is also a personal one for us teachers ourselves. What do we think of education? Is it for us a mere means of livelihood, and are we so incompetent that scant emoluments are a sufficient hire for us? Or is it humanity's most priceless possession, and worth immolating ourselves for its sake? These are questions which candidates should ponder, and ponder deeply. Entering the Christian ministry calls for no greater searching of hearts.

So much for the moral aspects of the question. Young people who have the view of life and duty to fit into these circumstances will find teaching modern languages as pleasant — native capability not wanting — as teaching other subjects. The course of training is as severe as any, chances for stipends in graduate work quite as good and, except in the utilitarian branches, the chances for advancement just as good as in other branches of study.

In common with English, music, art, and languages generally, the modern languages are taught predominantly by women, partly because of the fact that linguistic talent is commoner among women than among men.

No criticism of the women is here intended, but it is desirable that a fair percentage of men be found in this work. That it is a man's job is attested by the profession in France, England, and Germany; and, of course, when it comes to college and university professorships the great majority are held by men in the United States also. The teaching of modern languages is becoming more practical and it is bound to become more and more so, as our trade relations grow.

This more practical trend, together with the higher salaries, will certainly attract more men to it.

The training of modern-language teachers has been much discussed in recent years. The problem is a difficult one, since the laboratory is the foreign country, or as true an imitation of it as possible. This means equipment and highly trained faculties, since a thorough knowledge of both the native and the foreign idiom, literature, and life is essential. Besides, there is a better developed science of teaching modern languages than for most other branches. In the van with the general recent advance in teaching-standards in this country we find standards in modern-language teaching advancing also. The war has shown the practical value of foreign languages, and as we look into the post-bellum trade prospects, the challenge to us becomes even stronger.

This book offers a training course *in methods*, but it can only touch on what the teacher should know in language, literature, and institutions, and give suggestions as to his general training, his improvement in service, his professional life, and his foreign sojourn.

The course of training can be no less than four years beyond the high school and should, wherever possible, include, in addition, at least a year of postgraduate university training. All voices join in this opinion. Schools offering only two years beyond the high school have trained teachers heretofore, but our most authoritative report[1] calls this unwise and impossible for the future. The various courses which are desirable for the thorough training of a modern-language teacher are outlined in this report, and the standards set up in this chapter follow the lines laid down in this report, only that here much additional material is included, which broad and long-continued study of the subject has furnished but which could not be included in even as extensive a report as that of the committee.

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[1] Committee on the Collegiate Training of Teachers of Modern Foreign Languages of the Modern Language Association of America (appointed in 1913, Professor A. R. Hohlfeld, Chairman). This report unfortunately has never been printed, since the war interfered before the work of the committee was completed.

The only comprehensive account of the facilities for graduate work in modern languages was published in 1914,[1] and contains information still valuable at the present time for candidates as well as others. In it is found a Who's Who of the professors then teaching graduate courses in modern languages in the 42 leading universities, including the courses taught by each professor, together with a list of his published works. In the statistical part the strong lines of work in the modern-language departments are indicated, also the number and names of the instructors; the size of the general and departmental libraries; the number of students in the graduate school; the number and value of the fellowships and scholarships available; the facilities in comparative philology and literature; and finally, the number of M.A. and Ph.D. degrees granted in the Romance and Germanic departments within the five years from 1908–9 to 1912–13.

The report of the Modern Language Association committee, referred to above, speaks for itself and until a new investigation along similar broad lines is undertaken, it should be taken as the authoritative guide in all matters with which it deals, since it represents the expert advice and opinion of hundreds of the most eminent modern-language men in the United States. In the report of the committee just mentioned has been set up the ideal of scientific teacher-training toward which modern-language teaching has been working for years. To appreciate what this means to the teacher and the public we need to recall for a moment the history of this training.

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[1] Handschin, C. H., *The Facilities for Graduate Instruction in Modern Languages in the United States.* Miami University Publications. 97 pages. (A revised edition of this work is contemplated.)

The first modern-language teachers in Europe were foreigners without training for the work, and the subject was considered generally as a dilettante pastime and accomplishment. Later, native teachers were employed for this work, but it continued to be treated in the same spirit. The persons who taught it looked upon it as a non-important side-line to their regular teaching. Later still, when formal discipline became an ideal, the grammar-translation method was developed and the opposite pole was reached; the subject became dull and uninteresting without having much more time or thought given to it. From this state of affairs we have now, in the United States as well as in Europe, progressed to a thoroughly scientific course of training for the teachers which has put the subject on a par with the best in the curriculum.

Further, help on the following special questions will be welcomed by those responsible for the training of teachers: (1) requisites in the candidate and in his training; (2) improvement in service and professional activity; (3) foreign sojourn.

Not just any student should be encouraged to become a teacher of modern languages. There must be not only unselfish idealism and pedagogical bent, but also linguistic ability. Early training in the language is also desirable, unless the candidate has marked linguistic ability and is willing to pursue the most rigorous and long-continued course in training.

This does not mean that foreigners are to be preferred as teachers of modern languages. There are today a considerable number of foreigners in this service. Statistics collected in 1910[1] show that in that year 23.8 per cent of college and university teachers of German in the United States were natives of Germany, Austria, or Switzerland (174 schools reporting) and 11.4 per cent of college and university teachers of French were natives of France (174 schools reporting). The war has brought great changes in this matter, and today these figures for French and German would probably be reversed.

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[1] Handschin, C. H., *The Teaching of Modern Languages in the United States*, page 50.

A comprehensive statistical survey concerning the nativity of high-school teachers of German in the United States has been published by Miss Jenny,[1] which, based upon 568 answers to a questionnaire and involving 1464 teachers of German, shows that in the year 1915–16, 12 per cent of these teachers were native Germans of Germany, Austria, or Switzerland — 41 per cent were of German parentage, 47 per cent were of American parentage, 85 per cent held the A.B. degree, 19 per cent had been trained in normal schools, 13 per cent had both college and normal training, 20 per cent held masters' or doctors' degrees (only 6 had doctors' degrees), 30 per cent had studied in Germany, 12 per cent had spent at least a year in residence there. With these total percentages she compares the percentages obtaining for the various sections of the country. This point also, while we cannot go into the matter here, is of the greatest interest to educators as well as administrative officials.

Recent events have brought about considerable discussion of the subject of foreign-born teachers of modern languages. The present opinion is rather against employing foreigners. Or, more specifically, the opinion as threshed out in several modern-language conventions, notably the meeting of the Association of Modern Language Teachers of the Central West and South in May, 1918, is: foreigners in the future may teach in temporary positions as assistants, teachers of conversation, or lecturers, but permanent positions should, as a rule, be held by Americans, or by foreign-born teachers possessing American training. This is also the policy in France, Germany, and England, where, indeed, no foreign-born teachers are employed in the public secondary schools and very few, if any, in the universities.

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[1] Jenny, Florence G., "A Survey of the Preparation of Teachers of German in the High Schools of the United States," *Monatshefte für Deutsche Sprache und Pädagogik,* 19: 121–128, 146–154, 1918.

Consensus of opinion is that the teacher must in a way be a representative of the foreign culture, but substitution of foreign ideals for American ideals in the teaching of American youth cannot be tolerated. In a modest way the teacher may stand also for international understanding and *rapprochement*, but that is only a slight by-product, and he cannot afford to put much time or energy upon it.

As to his linguistic training he should have a fluent and correct use of the oral and written language, including, in the case of German, a knowledge of the script. For while German script should not be taught, except sufficiently to enable a student to read it, it may very properly — most teachers would say must — be taught to this extent sometime in the course, and preferably not in the initial stage.[1]

That teacher-training should include, also, thorough work in the history and institutions of the foreign nation is generally agreed.[2] In Germany, instruction in singing is also demanded, since foreign songs are to be sung in the classes.[3]

The knowledge of the foreign literature and language must be thorough, not, as heretofore often, a superficial knowledge of names and dates. The candidate should be *well read*, and able, for instance, to give expert answers to such questions as: In what genres did the French literature of the sixteenth, seventeenth, and eighteenth centuries excel? Give detailed examples. What significance has the salon in the French literature of the eighteenth century? What was the ruling philosophy of the reign of Louis XIV? Give its chief tenets. Where did it find expression in French literature? Why was the fable so popular a literary form in the seventeenth century in France? Explain fully the term *realism* as used in French literature. Mention some of the most significant works of realism in the French literature of the nineteenth century.

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[1] I mention this slight matter to advertise the ridiculous idea of some high-school inspectors who insist upon having the classes use German script throughout the course.

[2] Cf. Klenze, *Monatshefte für Deutsche Sprache und Pädagogik*, 16: 299 (for German); Meras, University of the State of New York Bulletin No. 628, December, 1916 (for French).

[3] *Die neueren Sprachen*, 22: 190 ff., 1914–1915.

What is the significance of Walther von der Vogelweide? of the *Meistergesang?* of the *Sturm und Drang?* of Goethe's antique period? of Schiller's *Don Carlos?* Give a historical sketch of the *Aufklärung* as to its development and significance. Give an exposition of the chief tenets of the philosophy of the Romantic School in Germany: of *Das junge Deutschland.*

In the language, he must have historic background for his knowledge of present-day linguistic forms: Why was the French noun formed, generally, from the Latin accusative? What does the circumflex accent mean? Explain how a feminine came to have a form like *des Nachts.* Is it *Mir dünkt*, or *Mir deucht?* Where would you go to settle the point? Why does a pupil say *Hans sein Buch* instead of *Hanses Buch?*

Is he thoroughly competent in phonetics?

Can he recognize elevated, colloquial, journalistic, or archaic style in present-day usage? Is he able to make the most helpful correlations with English words in explaining Romance or Germanic words? Has he a good knowledge of the cognates, antonyms, and synonyms of the foreign language? Does he know the best helps on cognates? idioms? proverbs? disputed usage? orthography? and pronunciation of the foreign language?

In history and institutions: Is he able to draw a map of the foreign country and to put in the principal political divisions, rivers, mountains, capitals, the main linguistic and ethnical divisions, high and low areas, climate, crops, industries, and occupations in certain areas? Is he conversant with the chief political parties, their clientèle, social legislation, the transportation systems, the schools, churches, and amusements?

This brings us to the question of how many languages a teacher should teach. In Europe, where this question has been of importance for a long time, it is the expert opinion that a modern-language teacher should not teach more than one foreign language. If two subjects must be taught, better to teach another branch along with one foreign language. The reasons given are: (1) No young teacher can teach two foreign languages satisfactorily. (2) Experienced teachers are worn out trying to keep up with two foreign civilizations, and more still, by the sameness and monotony of the elementary work to be done in two languages.

In teacher training, it will do no harm if in place of the conventional lecture method, the problem method of instruction gains the ascendancy; for several reasons: (1) especially undergraduates — and the bulk of teacher training for secondary schools is undergraduate — are not mature enough merely to be *told;* they should be taught to work up questions and problems by themselves, and to *think;* (2) if reared on this method, they will be less liable to lecture in the high school, and will be proficient in problem setting and problem solving, as they should be, in order to be proficient in high-school teaching.

To illustrate problem work in French literature a number of examples are reproduced here,[1] and we shall do well to bear in mind what the author says in this connection:

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[1] From Churchman, P. H., "The Study of French Literature," *Modern Language Journal,* 2: 53–68, 1917.

It should be distinctly remembered that these questions are not an examination but an inspiration; they are designed to keep the student thinking while he reads.

For instance, suppose we are about to begin the study of Corneille: instead of delivering the conventional lectures on the writer and exacting (or suggesting) the reading of a few of his plays collaterally, and instead of adopting the (preferable) course of simply discussing a manual in class, with incidental reading and discussion of the plays themselves, we should first of all read the plays. From the outset, however, we should also seek to guide and stimulate the student's reading by some such questions as these: (1) Is Corneille more interested in the plot of the play or the psychology of the characters? (2) Is he more interested in men or in women? (3) Is will or sentiment more conspicuous in his plays? Is there any change in his attitude on this matter in his later plays? (4) Is his spirit and are his plots prevailingly Greek or Roman? (5) How much time elapses between the beginning and the end of one of his plays? (6) Does the place of the action change? (7) Are his plots complicated? (8) Are his characters natural, everyday people?

Problems culled from a course[1] covering eighteenth-century German literature and designed to accompany the readings in the course are: 1. What is rationalism? Any trace of it in modern life? In your life? 2. What is nature portrayal? 3. How is it used in Goethe's *Werther?* 4. What is a fable? 5. Of what use is satire in literature? 6. Do you know of any celebrated examples from first-hand reading? 7. Into what realm do the allusions in Anacreontic poetry lead, prevalently? 8. Why is the action so slow in *Der Messias?* 9. What do you think is the essence of Gellert's genius? Why, in your opinion, did Goethe call him one of his three greatest teachers? 10. Do Gessner's idylls conform to the usual definition of an idyll? Why do you suppose the idyll was so popular in Gessner's day? 11. What kinds of lyrics are there? Of what kind is the lyric under consideration? 12. What is the relation of literature to pictorial art? Give examples of similarities between art and literature which you have noted personally. 13. What makes the action so slow in Voss' *Luise?* Has the preponderance of any of the following kinds of motives anything to do with it: progressive, anticipative, retarding, retrogressive, retrospective? 14. Tabulate the traits of several characters in *Minna von Barnhelm* and from a study of these tabulations deduce the formula which expresses the essence of each character in some such form as: simple character, with devotion to friends as leading moral trait. 15. What is the dilemma in *Emilia Galotti?* Is it, or is it not, in your opinion, convincing? 16. Wieland is said to represent the Latin or Romance strain in German literature. Can you give any reasons for this? 17. Analyze Goethe's *Götz von Berlichingen* according to Freytag's scheme given in his *Technique of the Drama.*

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[1] For the sake of brevity the detailed references, by the aid of which the student is to solve the problems, are omitted.

Similar problems can, and should, be set in the philological work and in the courses in the foreign civilization. For numerous examples and suggestions see Parker, S. C., *Exercises for Methods of Teaching in High Schools* (Ginn & Co., Boston; 1918), 261 pages. For a good outline of courses in methods see Swift's article in *School and Society*, 6: 691–699, 1917.

It is significant that the question which is greater and more important, method or individuality, which is so familiar to school men, rarely arises in lines of endeavor which have a thoroughly perfected technique. On the other hand, it is true that the individuality of the teacher increases in importance as it becomes a question of persuading, or of working on, the emotions or the moral sense, or of inculcating ideals, whereas it is only slightly a factor in grinding lenses, or using a tool. This statement makes out a good case for the importance of individuality in the teaching profession, and its province, also, is clearly delimited; viz., the inspiration of ideals.

If this is what the advocates of individualism in teaching mean, we have no quarrel with them; indeed, every one must demand this quality in the teacher since ideals are all-important. But if individualism means license to disregard what has been clearly established as the best technique, that is another matter. All teaching must conform in the guiding principles, as well as in mastery of exact technique, to standards which have, by expert study, been proved the best, just as the pieceworker in a standardized shop must do the work in the approved best way, unless, of course, he can at rare intervals make improvements upon it. Such improvements should be encouraged, or other just as good ways tolerated, but reversion to individualistic poor methods, to suit the whim of the individual, cannot be tolerated. In the shop, or laboratory, they are soon dropped because the output is concrete and can be measured. However, in the classroom a slightly poorer product is not so readily detected, nor detectable, by our present methods of measuring; hence, poor methods sometimes go undetected and unconvicted.

Technique is the great secret of our modern industrial success. In the industrial world every worker must conform to the technique which has been established either by the empirical method of experimentation — trial and error, and preserving the best — or more recently by exact scientific study with the motion-picture camera and the stop watch, with mathematical computation, and the slide rule. Is there a technique in modern-language teaching? These pages have surely answered this question. Is further development of this technique possible? Most assuredly! Indeed, if the financial rewards in teaching were as great as in the industrial world, its technique would long ago have been perfected, as has industrial technique in many lines.

I understand fully the apprehension which is sometimes expressed against exact methods. It results from the fact that the teaching profession, above all, must constantly be on its guard against "newfangled" methods. In few lines of human endeavor has there been so much "bunk" foisted upon the public and the profession as in this intangible art of teaching. But has not teaching become more of a science within the last decades? Cannot well-trained teachers therefore detect for themselves crank schemes and the tangential proclivities of quacks, men of one idea, overzealous reformers, educational mountebanks and *entrepreneurs?*

But wise teachers also know the value of technique to any profession: (1) in giving it a more scientific standing; (2) thereby excluding from it the untrained, and thus raising the personnel of the profession, both as to social standing and as to remuneration.

For these considerations, alone, we must welcome any advance in greater and more scientific skill. And this is the angle from which to evaluate method courses. Skill cannot be imparted merely by observing another. It must be, in addition, consciously taught and learned. Teacher training has received more attention in the last ten years in America than in all her preceding history.[1]

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR STUDENTS ENTERING THE TEACHERS' COURSE

Note. The following questionnaire, which may be varied to suit needs, is useful in gathering information about a class. Some of the data about methods of instruction may also be used in later discussions of methods, but its main use is in providing the teacher with data about the members of the class which help in providing for each student's special needs. It should be filled out the first day of the course.

1. Name ....
2. Where do you teach? .... How long have you taught? .... Where? ....

3. How much French, German, Spanish, or Italian does your school offer? 4. Which part of this is taught by you? 5. Give names of your other teachers of French, German, Spanish, or Italian. 6. How large are your classes? 7. In what proportions

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[1] For articles on teacher training see Appendix A. Cf. also Brown, J. F., *The Training of Teachers for Secondary Schools* (The Macmillan Company, New York; 1917).

are English and French, German, Spanish, or Italian used in your classroom? 8. Do you teach grammar in French, German, Spanish, or Italian? Why, or why not? 9. Do you teach grammar inductively? or deductively? Why? 10. What textbooks do you use the first year? Reasons for your choices? 11. Ditto, in second, third, and fourth years? 12. Do you choose the books? If not, who does? Is this arrangement satisfactory? 13. What parts of grammar do you teach in the first, second, third, fourth years (in detail)? 14. What work specifically is done orally in French, German, Spanish, or Italian? 15. What work do you do in written composition? And how (details)? 16. How much of a vocabulary do you teach the first year? 17. Have you counted the words or guessed at their number? 18. Do you use word-forming exercises, or have you other means of increasing the student's vocabulary? Explain in detail. 19. Do you rotate texts much or not? Give reasons. 20. Have you ever had a course in methods of teaching? If so, what, when, and where? 21. Have you had a course in psychology? What, when, and where? 22. What use have you made of this knowledge? 23. How do you teach pronunciation? 24. Have you studied phonetics? Do you make use of it in your teaching? How (in detail)? 25. What is your purpose in taking this course? 26. What is your idea of the purpose of teaching French, German, Spanish, or Italian in the secondary schools? Explain in detail. 27. Do you speak French, German, Spanish, or Italian fluently? 28. How did you acquire this fluency? 29. What is most difficult for you in teaching (or studying) French, German, Spanish, or Italian? 30. What subjects do you wish to see most stressed in this course? 31. How much French, German, Spanish, or Italian have you studied? 32. When? In what schools? Under whom? 33. What method was used? 34. What books? 35. What work have you had in English language and literature? 36. In European history? 37. In any other languages? 38. What books have you read on French, German, Spanish, or Italian history, institutions, life, literature?

Note. Persons who have not taught may omit questions 1–19 inclusive, and 23.

French German, Spanish, or Italian Teachers' Course

Requirement in Bibliography

1. Phonetics.
   - (*a*) Name best treatise extant in your opinion.
   - (*b*) Name best slight treatise for your purposes.
   - (*c*) Name three best bibliographies of the subject.
2. Methods of teaching.
   - (*a*) Name three best treatises in the United States.
   - (*b*) Name three best short treatises for your everyday purposes.
   - (*c*) Name three best bibliographies of subject.
3. Books on the foreign country.
   - (*a*) Name three best works on history and institutions, with evaluations.
   - (*b*) Name three others, with evaluations.
   - (*c*) Name three best bibliographies of the subject.
4. Periodicals for the teacher.
   - (*a*) Name two best, and
   - (*b*) Also four others, with notes as to the peculiar value of each to the teacher.
5. *Realia.*
   - (*a*) Name three best bibliographies of *realia.*
6. Make a bibliography for the current year (or the year preceding) covering methods of teaching, books and articles on French, German, Spanish, or Italian language, literature, and institutions (or any other subject deemed desirable by the teacher). For this purpose use *Modern Language Journal, School Review, Hispania, Monatshefte für Deutsche Sprache und Pädagogik*, Readers' Guide, Cumulative Book Index, etc., as the particular language may require or the teacher may deem wise.

Note. In listing titles, it is best done on cards, one title on each card. In case of books or monographs give:

1. Author.
2. Title of book.
3. Name of publisher.
4. Year of publication.
5. Number of pages.

In case of magazine articles give:

1. Author.
2. Title of article.
3. Name of magazine.
4. Volume, pages, and year.

The cards, as well as other written work handed in during the course, should be preserved in the professor's possession until the student is established in a position in which this material will be of use to him, when, upon application to the professor, it may be sent to him.

The importance of learning how to handle bibliography can hardly be overestimated. These are the materials of his profession. Without knowing how to locate and use them, the teacher is helpless.

FRENCH, GERMAN, SPANISH, OR ITALIAN TEACHERS' COURSE

Suggested Schedules for Observation Work

Schedule I. *Phonetics. Teaching pronunciation.* (1) Hand in to the teacher at the beginning of the hour your plan for the first instruction in pronunciation. (2) As the recitation progresses, make an outline of the plan the teacher uses. (3) Obtain your plan again from the teacher before the next observation hour, note on it wherein your plan differed from his, and hand back both to the teacher. (4) Answer in your notebook the following questions: (*a*) What is your impression of the efficiency of the instruction in pronunciation in the class observed? (*b*) Give any examples of faulty instruction in pronunciation which you observed.

Schedule II. *Series work.* Follow points 1, 2, and 3 as in Schedule I, this time with regard to teaching series. (4) Answer the following questions in your notebook: (*a*) Were new sentences spoken a sufficient number of times and with sufficient gesticulation and elucidation (reference to English cognates, to synonyms already in the possession of the student, or by giving the English equivalent) so that all understood the meaning of the sentence before they were allowed to repeat it? (*b*) Was care taken to have all repeat the sentence in concert? (*c*) Was a review taken at the end of the paragraph? Or at the end of the lesson? (*d*) Was it evident that the class had the lesson well learned by the end of the hour? (*e*) Was the reciting of the series handled quickly, allowing each student to give one sentence in turn? (*f*) Did the teacher look over the written work in the notebooks, or did he have it read, or written at the board for correction? (*g*) Was there any writing of the series at the board? (*h*) Was the advance work in grammatical forms carefully developed by the teacher? (*i*) What else was done in class, if anything more? (*j*) What method of preparation was the student advised to follow?

Schedule III. *Reading.* Follow points 1, 2, and 3 as in Schedule I, this time in regard to the teaching of reading. (4) Answer the following questions in your notebook: (*a*) What was read? (*b*) With what evident objects? (*c*) What method of recitation was employed: translation? retelling? quizzing on text by teacher? or students? rewriting? writing paraphrases in answer to questions contained in book? etc. (*d*) Were any vocabulary-building exercises used (cognates, synonyms, antonyms, derivative groups)? (*e*) Was the advance lesson carefully developed? (*f*) What method of preparation was the student advised to follow?

Schedule IV. *Grammar.* Follow points 1, 2, and 3 as in Schedule I, this time with regard to instruction in grammar. (4) Answer the following questions in your notebook: (*a*) Was grammar taught inductively (synthetically), or deductively (analytically), or were both methods used? (*b*) Give an example of inductive and one of deductive teaching of grammar. (*c*) To what extent was the foreign language used in teaching grammar? (*d*) What do you mean by "teaching grammar by the direct method"? (*e*) What point or points were being developed, or drilled, during this hour?

Schedule V. *Composition.* Follow out points 1, 2, and 3 as in Schedule I. (4) Answer the following questions in your notebook: (*a*) Was it oral or written composition? (*b*) To what extent conducted in the foreign language? (*c*) What method was used? (Question and answer, free speech for student, series-making, object teaching, etc.) (*d*) If written, was it based on a text? What method was used? (Translation, paraphrases, free composition, etc.) (*e*) What method of correcting the work was used? (At board or by the teacher at the seats, etc.)

Schedule VI. *Realia.* Follow out points 1, 2, and 3 as in Schedule I, this time with regard to teaching *realia.* (4) Answer the following questions in your notebook: (*a*) What *realia* had evidently been in use? (*b*) What ability or knowledge did the students show as a result of this? (*c*) What *realia* were used this day? (*d*) What specific use was made of them? (*e*) Write out in your notebook a plan for teaching *realia* in the first, second, third, and fourth years of French, German, or Spanish in high school, giving references to the exact collections, books, maps to be used, and amounts to be covered. (*f*) Plan a $25 and a $50 collection of *realia* for high school and give addresses at which goods may be ordered.

Schedule VII. *Teaching of literature.* Follow out **1**, **2**, and **3**, as in Schedule I, this time with regard to the teaching of a lyric. (4) Answer the following in your notebook: (*a*) Were the four steps (see Chapter XI) observed? If not, which were observed? (*b*) If a novel, drama, or short story was discussed, make an outline of the plan the teacher followed.

NOTE. We may forgo further discussion of requirements and methods, especially in view of various chapters in this book which deal with phases of method, and devote the space to consideration of the improvement of the teacher in service, and his foreign sojourn.

THE TEACHER'S IMPROVEMENT IN SERVICE[1]

We must recognize that the first great agency is the teacher's private reading and study. In addition, he can in the United States: (1) attend summer schools;[2] (2) live in a French, German, or Spanish family; (3) exchange lessons with some person proficient in the foreign language; (4) attend a theater, a church, society, or club in which the foreign language is spoken; (5) associate with fellow teachers of the same subject for purposes of conversation in the foreign language; (6) carry on courses in the foreign language *in*

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[1] Cf. Ruediger, W. C., *Agencies for the Improvement of Teachers in Service* (Government Printing Office, Washington; 1911), 157 pages. Also cf. Oliver, T. E., "Suggestions and References for Modern Language Teachers," University of Illinois Bulletin, Vol. 14, No. 43, 1917.

[2] In addition to the extensive summer school courses offered by our leading universities there are several summer schools of languages. For announcements, see the advertising pages of the *Modern Language Journal.* For graduate study for teachers, see *ibid.*, 7:1–4.

absentia with some first-class university; (7) purchase a victrola with records in the foreign language, or languagephone records, for private study; (8) purchase books containing courses for self-instruction; and (9) correspond with foreigners in the foreign language.

A college graduate should be able to carry on private study successfully. However, the technique of private study is often not stressed in college courses and a word may be devoted to it here profitably.

To do private study one needs books. Borrowing some of them from a library is necessary, but the most important ones, those containing the fundamentals of the science, should be bought, annotated, and kept for everyday use. This is an expense, but we must remember that without a stock of books the teacher is lost. We can generally judge a teacher by his library.

The most urgent need during the first years of one's teaching is to study and read "all round" the texts one is teaching. Using dictionaries, encyclopedias, grammars, and general reference books is not all, however immediately important. The teacher will also read literary and other texts, on which he must take notes, if he would work efficiently. The technique of excerpting scientific and historical treatises is not elaborate. Handy, comprehensive outlines should be made in ink, in some uniform style of notebook, or card, which can then be filed and preserved permanently. In doing this, the necessary bibliographical data (author, title, as well as the page on which particular data are found) should be given, if the matter is to be of the greatest possible value. Notebooks of slight compass may be used for long treatises, which may then be filed alphabetically. If more than one outline is thus entered in a single notebook, a card catalogue and index to the notebooks becomes necessary. Notes on short articles, special topics, or statistics are best entered on uniform-size cards and filed alphabetically. Cards of lightweight paper are best, since heavy-weight cards soon pile up to forbidding masses.

In reading literary works, which consumes so much of the language teacher's time, he needs a handy scheme for analyzing works, thus arriving at an estimate of their proper worth and fixing them more effectively in memory. To note the contents is good, although, in case there is extant a printed outline and synopsis of the work, as there is for very many of the works of the classic literature, reference to this should be noted and the work of making another synopsis omitted. Warner's *Library of the World's Best Literature* contains synopses of many classics, and these volumes will put the reader on the track of many more such. The diligent college student will, in his study of the literature and of literary criticism, have found many other repositories of such synopses.

But merely noting the contents is not sufficient to form an expert estimate of a work, nor are a few chance judgments about a book literary criticism. For those who need a bibliographical guide, Gayley and Scott, *Methods and Materials of Literary Criticism* (Ginn & Co.), is to be recommended as a standard book. Titles in Chapter XI under the various languages will give further specific aid. However, a short, concise scheme of analysis for practical everyday use is nowhere to be found in such books, and for this purpose I will give here a scheme which contains in a nutshell the generally recognized critical-historical method which, with variations, is employed by scholars everywhere.

1. Source of the material. Where did the author obtain his material?[1]

2. Genesis, or growth, of the work. When was the work first conceived and how did it grow to completion? (To be traced in the author's daybooks and letters.)

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[1] The data called for under 1, 2, 3, and 6 may be read up tersely in the introduction to the work or in a comprehensive history of literature.

3. Influence exerted on the content — i.e., ideas — or the style: by other works or persons; by environment, social or political; by circumstances under which the work was written.
4. Analysis of the motive as a whole; of subsidiary motives; of the *milieu;* of the characters; of the language and form.
5. Deepest meaning and purpose.
6. Influence of the work on its time and on succeeding generations.

Further viewpoints in studying works are also found in Chapter XI. With this scheme of study in mind, it will be interesting to read criticisms of books and to observe what scheme of analysis is being carried out.

A few words of a general nature upon private study may also not be amiss here. To acquire scholarship requires great time and effort, two requisites which are beyond the mass of men. Teachers have full work generally, and thus the first thing is to save time. This can be accomplished only by system in work and play. For the teacher who can get only an hour daily for his own private advancement, but will get it, and use it conscientiously, year in and out, the battle is won. Schedules, and strict adherence to them through long months; system in the work; aims, clearly mapped out in advance; counsel from friends, on his personal case, needs and plans: all these are imperative.

Another rock upon which many are shattered is promiscuous reading, especially of newspapers, magazines, and other ephemeral matter; including a predominance of cheap or unseasoned fiction. This is worse than a waste of time, since it enervates the mind. To recreate the body, we need fresh air, God's fields, and exercise, not light fiction. We should be just as careful about what we put into our minds (and hearts) as about what we put into our bodies.

However, do all teachers care for knowledge? Let me characterize two types of teachers: The one, hard-working, conscientious, recognizes that his life work is to be an example for the young, both as a man and as a representative of education. The other, who has never worked and is an ignoramus, perhaps well groomed and sleek, has managed in a weak school to get along by being a good fellow, well met. His *forte* is to do the social turns, put up as good a front as may be, and trust to the gods for the rest. This sort of person passed, often, under school conditions as they were: today we are fast passing to a condition in which he can no longer survive.

We need to think of our work in an ideal way. Young persons cannot ponder this deeply. The years must teach them. But even the young teacher should ask himself: Why am I in this work? Is it merely for the pay; or for fame? or is it to leave the world better than I found it? This brings us to a consideration of the teacher's professional activity in its social aspects. The best way to maintain a high respect for one's department on the part of colleagues is to deserve it. Faultless politeness, coöperation, and sympathy win faster and more permanently than do aggression and usurpation. Hard and efficient work will do the rest.

The teacher needs to remember that teaching, in the broadest sense, in school and society is his business. He is a poor American, or at least has a poor understanding of American institutions and aspirations, who is not interested in the great things and movements going on in the body politic, in the industrial and social world.

Let me couple this admonition to the teacher to retain a broad and live interest in public affairs, with a warning against unduly burying himself in books and research. University professors very properly place the ideal of research before all their students, even the undergraduates. But we know that for all but exceptional secondary-school teachers significant research is impossible. Of course we recognize that independent research is the scholar's most eminent field. No one can be a great teacher of advanced students or a leader in human thought who has not carried on independent and original investigation and contributed to the sum of human knowledge.

Even though only exceptional secondary-school teachers can do significant research, it does not mean that the secondary-school teacher will be a mere sponge. He will read widely and observe keenly; he is the transmitter of the social heritage of the race, which includes its learning. He will not only discipline the minds and bodies of his students, he will inspire them for high ideals. He may help also in furthering the technique of teaching, thus making the work progressively more efficient. And, finally, it goes without saying that the progressive teacher will affiliate and coöperate with bodies of his fellow teachers, meet and deliberate with them, as well as keep abreast of the latest thought in his profession.

FOREIGN SOJOURN

The percentage of foreign-born modern-language teachers is no doubt decreasing, while the percentage of American-born modern-language teachers who have had residence abroad has grown steadily.[1] This is additional testimony to the practical idealism of the profession, since practically no remuneration is given for time spent abroad, and a foreign stay means, instead of a vacation, added work and expense to the teacher.

Teachers' associations have, indeed, demanded such foreign residence as absolutely necessary and as in keeping with the best practice in Europe, but school boards have, as is traditional, lagged far behind in providing any financial encouragement; indeed, have often discouraged such leaves of absence, by not being willing to hold positions open for the absentees. A few cities have, indeed, made some provision for this, along lines named in Chapter XV. The list of these cities should be published in the *Modern Language Journal* annually in an honor roll, a "white list."

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[1] A questionnaire circulated in New England showed that 162 out of 304 modern-language teachers had studied abroad. *Publications of the New England Modern Language Association*, 15 A, page 22, 1909. See also Jenny's article, quoted previously in this chapter.

In addition, the teaching profession needs to get together annually, and make easily accessible, information concerning available residence accommodations in the foreign countries concerned.[1] Good work in this has been done in the past by the New England Modern Language Association, which for a number of years printed lists of families abroad who were willing to receive American teachers and students as boarders and members of the household. Next, Professor Oliver (*op. cit.*) collected some similar data for all of the countries in question. Since these lists of addresses are now too old to be reliable, it is thought best not to give any of them here, but merely to refer persons interested to the International Residence Association, 419 West 117th Street, New York City, for foreign addresses in general, and the Amerika-Institut, Universitäts-str., Berlin, Germany. Teachers of French had best address L'Alliance Française, 200 Fifth Avenue, New York, and teachers of Spanish should address La Casa de las Españas, New York City.

Inexperienced teachers going abroad without expert guidance are more than likely to be taken in by some commercial agency or, at best, to waste time and money traveling with irresponsible parties, or such as have not the candidate's viewpoint and needs in mind, and thus fail to get in touch with the proper environment, family life, club life, and society.

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[1] This can be done most probably and properly in the *Modern Language Journal;* see this journal, 6: 321–326, for sojourn in Spain.

The exchange of teachers between the United States and the foreign countries is another means of improvement for the teacher. The only regularly established exchange of teachers before the war was that with Prussia. This was facilitated in the United States by the Carnegie Foundation.[1]

Problems

Outline the course for modern-language teachers (*a*) in Germany (reference: Brown, J., *The Training of Teachers for Secondary Schools in Germany and the United States*, Chapter 3; 1911); (*b*) in England (*ibid.*, pages 297–326); (*c*) in France (*ibid.*, pages 295–297; also Farrington, *French Secondary Schools*, Chapter 15; 1910). Compare these requirements with those in force in the United States.

Write out a lesson plan: (*a*) for a lesson in oral grammar, first year in high school; (*b*) for a lesson in written composition, second year, high school; (*c*) for a lesson in reading, third year, high school (French, German, or Spanish), and prepare yourself to teach one of these lessons to a class. Definite texts, amounts, and procedures to be stated; also the specific aim of the lesson.

Should the modern-language associations, or other authority, prescribe specified lists of reading texts for modern-language courses? If you favor this, write out the principles which, in your opinion, should govern the choices. If you are opposed, write your reasons in detail. Cf. *Modern Language Journal*, 2: 139–150, 1918.

Write out a four-year high-school curriculum for French, German, or Spanish, including: (*a*) statement of aim and method; (*b*) detailed procedures in each kind of work; (*c*) specify texts and amounts to be done; (*d*) append an examination — based on the exact work done and method followed — for the first, third, and sixth semesters of the course.

NOTE. Besides referring to the curricula reprinted in the Appendix, see: *A Four Years' Course in French and Spanish for Secondary Schools*, 1916 (University of California Press); "A Syllabus for a Three-Year High School Course in German," *School Review*, 23: 479–481, 1915; also (for Spanish) University of Illinois Bulletin, Vol. 12, No. 21, pages 279 ff.

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[1] Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 522 Fifth Avenue, New York. There is no exchange of teachers at present between the United States and foreign countries, except for university teachers. For information about the latter, see *Hispania*, 3: 1–4.

APPENDIX A

BIBLIOGRAPHY OF METHODS

For a bibliography of methods up to 1913, see Handschin, C. H., *The Teaching of Modern Languages in the United States*, pages 107–134.

Addenda for 1912

BOOKS AND PAMPHLETS

CARRUTH, W. H. "Modern Languages," Chapter 14, pages 277–287, in Johnson, C. H., *High School Education*. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York.

CORTELYOU, JOHN V. *The Direct Method of Teaching Modern Languages*. Manhattan, Kansas. 9 pages. (Symposium on popularity of the direct method.)

GEDDES, J., and TESSON, L. *Oral Instruction in Modern Languages*. The Palmer Company, Boston. 16 pages. (Advocates the phonetic or reform method, modified to meet American conditions.)

PERIODICALS

Monatshefte für Deutsche Sprache und Pädagogik

FLORER, WARREN W. "Concentration," 13:231–235. (Seeing life in literature. Teaching how to think.)

HÄNSSLER, W. "The Training of a Modern Language Teacher with Special Reference to German," 13:141–145. (Hints and helps on teacher-training.)

KRAUSE, CARL A. "The Teaching of German by the Direct Method," 13:178–185. (Notes on the efficiency of direct-method grammar work.)

The Educational Review

KAYSER, C. F. "May the Modern Languages Be Regarded as a Satisfactory Substitute for the Classics?" 43:449–460. (Yes, when conditions shall have improved somewhat.)

PRICE, WILLIAM R. "Aims and Methods in Modern Language Instruction," 44:257–274. (Advocates the reform method, modified to suit our conditions.)

The School Review

Cipriani, Charlotte J. "The Use of Phonetics and the Phonograph in the Teaching of Elementary French," 20 : 516–525. (Good pronunciation important, the technique of teaching it is sketched.)

Effinger, John R. "La Ligue pour la Culture Française," 20 : 401–406. ("La Ligue pour la Culture Française" is advocating the study of the classics as opposed to the present-day stress on modern literature and culture.)

Education (Boston)

Bronk, Isabelle. "Experiences of a Non-Native Teacher of Modern Languages," 33 : 150–158. (Personal reminiscences of foreign sojourn.)

Geddes, J., and Tesson, L. "Oral Instruction in Modern Languages," 33 : 27–35. (For contents, see under reprint of this article above.)

The Educational Bi-Monthly (Chicago)

Cutting, Starr W. "The Teaching of Foreign Modern Languages in Our Schools," 7 : 97–103. (A brief for direct-method work and the careful selection of reading texts.)

Proceedings of the New York State Teachers' Association (1912)

Tilly, T. "The Use of Phonetics in the Teaching of Modern Languages," pages 265–271.

Whitney, Marian P. "The Place of Reading in the Modern Language Course," pages 212–216. (Intensive and extensive reading to take the place of translation.)

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Müller, Margarethe. "German at Wellesley College," pages 35–50. (Résumé of the pedagogical work of Carla Wenckebach.)

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Armstrong, E. C., Bagster-Collins, E. W., and Hemry, F. L. "Modern Language Teaching in the United States," pages 106–127.

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Nix, Amalie. "Methods of Teaching German and the Personality of the Teacher," pages 728–731. (Discussion of same, pages 731–732.)

Prokosch, Edward. "The Place of Phonetics in High School German," pages 128–140. (Statement of the rudiments.)

VARIOUS JOURNALS

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Muntsch, A. "The Modern Language Course and the Choice of Suitable Texts," Catholic Education Association, Columbus, Ohio, pages 230–246.

Purin, Charles M. "The High School Course in German," Bulletin of the University of Wisconsin. 37 pages. (Outlines of courses, slight bibliography, and pedagogical suggestions.)

Truscott, Fred W. "German in the High School of West Virginia," West Virginia University Bulletin. 27 pages. (Statistics concerning German in high schools, and German teachers in West Virginia.)

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GEDDES, JAMES, JR. *French Pronunciation: Principles and Practice and a Summary of Usage in Writing and Printing.* Oxford University Press, New York; 1913. 262 pages. (Contains bibliography. Useful.)

HANDSCHIN, C. H. *The Teaching of Modern Languages in the United States.* United States Bureau of Education, Bulletin No. 3. 154 pages. (The history, statistics, and bibliography of the subject from the earliest times to 1913. Review of the same by Raymond Weeks, *Educational Review*, 46 : 400 ff.)

PERIODICALS

Monatshefte für Deutsche Sprache und Pädagogik

HESS, JOHN A. "Teaching Elementary German at a State University," 14 : 3–8, 41–47. (Recommends an eclectic method which approaches the direct.)

LÜBBEN, JOHN L. "Die direkte Methode in der amerikanischen Schule; das Brauchbare an derselben für uns," 14 : 248–264. (Emphasizes speaking.)

MENGER, F. J. "Die direkte Methode in den höheren Schulen Amerikas," 14 : 277–285. (Recommends an approximation of the direct method for our conditions.)

MUNZINGER, KARL F. "Die direkte Methode in der amerikanischen Schule: Eine Erwiderung," 14 : 327–329. (Brief for direct method.)

—— "Übersetzen im neusprachlichen Unterricht," 14 : 207–208. (Translation should be avoided in the elementary stages.)

PURIN, CHARLES M. "Die direkte Methode beim neusprachlichen Unterricht," 14 : 78–83. (Attempts to get at the psychological principles underlying the language-learning process.)

SCOTT, MARGARET S. "Getting the Sense," 14 : 8–10. (Points out the danger of superficial reading.)

The Educational Review

BRACQ, JEAN C. "French in the College Course," 45 : 122–139. (Recommends making French a cultural study, which to him means reading a good number of modern texts.)

KRAUSE, CARL A. "The Trend of Modern Language Instruction

in the United States," 45 : 237–248. (Notes on the direct method.)

Leathes, Stanley. "Modern Languages in Education," 45 : 155–166. (Advocates a more intensive and literary study of modern languages.)

Schinz, Albert. "Difference between the Work of the High School, College, and Graduate School," 46 : 237–251. (Discussion of the place of various kinds of texts. Is opposed to reading of classics in high school.)

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Locard, Frederick. "The Study of French in the Public High Schools of the United States," 21 : 682–689. (Thinks none but native French can teach French pronunciation. Oral French should therefore be abolished.)

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OLSON, BLENDA. "Some Principles of the German Lesson," Vol. 11, No. 17 : 232–234. (Excellent suggestions concerning classroom practice.)

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BUCK, P. M. "Latin and the Modern Languages," 96 : 465. (Argues for value of Latin and against modern languages, on basis of scant data.)

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The Scientific American

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Canfield, A. G. "The Present Situation of Modern Languages in the High School," Journal of the 47th meeting, pages 64–71. (Modern languages have failed to live up to their claim of being practical. Latin and Greek are equally good for discipline. Modern languages may become optional for entrance to college.)

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HANDSCHIN, C. H. "Manual Number Two : For Teachers of German in High Schools and Colleges," Miami University Bulletin, January, 1913. 18 pages. (A manual to accompany the author's German Series.)

KELLEHER, J. V. "Shall We Teach Dead Languages?" *Western Journal of Education*, Vol. 19, No. 7 : 3–4. (Refers to the teaching of Latin and Greek, which he would abolish, and for which he would substitute modern languages.)

PERLITZ, LINA. "The Direct Method and Conditions in Our Public

Schools," *Texas State Teachers' Association Proceedings*, pages 201–204.

Snow, William B. "Statement of Chairman of the Committee on Modern Languages of the National Education Association," United States Bureau of Education, Bulletin No. 41 : 40–58. (This is the tentative report of this committee. The final report has not appeared.)

Stern, Leo. "Manual for the Teaching of Foreign Languages in the Public Schools of the City of Milwaukee, Wisconsin." 46 pages.

Thierstein, J. R. "Special Difficulties in the Teaching of German," *Western School Journal*, 29 : 47–48. (Useful suggestions.)

Toy, Walter D. "Translation in the Modern Language Classes," North Carolina High School Bulletin, 4 : 169–170. (If the direct method is used, or if the language is begun early, there is no need for translation. If, however, translation is made, it should be idiomatic and careful.)

Vermont, A. "The Conversational Method in the Teaching of Modern Languages," North Carolina High School Bulletin, 4 : 163. (Should begin French and German in the seventh or eighth grade.)

Wannamaker, W. H. "The Teaching of Modern Languages in the High School," North Carolina High School Bulletin, 4 : 165–168. (He thinks grammatical study is the most valuable thing in our modern-language work.)

Warshaw, J. "On the Encouragement of Romance Languages in the Schools of Missouri," *Proceedings of Meeting of Missouri Society of Teachers of English and Modern Languages*, pages 4 ff. (Plans to improve instruction in Romance languages by improvement of university courses, by forming a state organization, and by bringing normal schools to lay more stress on Romance languages.)

1914

BOOKS AND PAMPHLETS

Bloomfield, Leonard. *An Introduction to the Study of Language.* Henry Holt & Co., New York. (Chapter 9 deals with the teaching of languages.)

Butler, Nicholas M. *Annual Report of the President of Columbia University.* 54 pages. (Of interest merely because he endorses the direct method.)

HANDSCHIN, C. H. *The Facilities for Graduate Instruction in Modern Languages in the United States.* Miami University Publications, Oxford, Ohio. 97 pages. (This is the "Who's Who" of modern-language professors who give postgraduate courses in American universities. Contains bibliographies on all the men, statistics, etc.)

KRAUSE, CARL A. *Über die Reformmethode in Amerika: Vier Vorträge, gehalten während der Marburger Ferienkurse,* 1914. *Mit einem Begleitwort von Max Walter.* (Marburg, Elwert. Lectures on pronunciation, grammar, examinations, and methods.)

OLIVER, THOMAS E. "Suggestions and References for Modern Language Teachers," University of Illinois Bulletin, Vol. 12, No. 12. 52 pages. (Valuable bibliography, covering most of the subjects concerning the teaching of French, German, and Spanish.)

PERIODICALS

Monatshefte für Deutsche Sprache und Pädagogik

HESS, JOHN A. "Anschauungsunterricht für Sprachlehrer," 15 : 353–356. (Study of illustrated catalogues is recommended to teachers, in order to enrich their practical vocabulary.)

KOCK, HENRY E. "The Poem as a Factor in the Teaching of Modern Languages," 15 : 314–321. (Shows how poems may be used to inculcate grammatical usage.)

KOLLER, ARMIN H. "Methods of Teaching Prose Composition," 15 : 54–59, 89–92. (Favors direct method.)

MENSEL, ERNST H. "Some Aspects of Modern Language Teaching in This Country," 15 : 128–134, 162–168. (Survey of progress in modern-language teaching during the last twenty-five years.)

PRICE, WILLIAM R. "The Conditions of Modern Language Teaching in the State of New York, and Some Remedies," 15 : 201–206. (Discusses oral work, schools and teachers, pupils, remedies, better preparation of teachers, and endorses the reform method.)

STEWART, CAROLINE T. "The Study of Literature," 15 : 346–349.

The Educational Review

BALLARD, ANNA W. "Efficient Teaching of a Modern Language," 47 : 379–390. (Emphasizes good work in pronunciation and in

speaking from the start; limited but thorough work in grammar.)

Bell, Clair H. "Experiences of an American Exchange Teacher in Germany," 47 : 28–56. (Discussion of German school system. Shows up points of excellence in our own system.)

Hervey, William A. "How to Test a Practical Command of French and German," 48 : 141–150. (Advocates the establishing of supplementary elementary and intermediate oral test in addition to the written college entrance examination.)

Heuser, Fred J. W. "College Entrance Examinations in German," 48 : 217–226. (Discussion and defense of present style of college entrance examinations, but advises in addition questions testing *lebendige Grammatik.*)

The School Review

Bovée, Arthur G. "A Communication," 21 : 417–418. (Refers to M. Locard's article, *School Review,* 21 : 682–689, and asserts that Locard is wrong in claiming that only natives can teach French.)

Churchman, Philip H. "On the Teaching of French Pronunciation," 22 : 545–554. (Pronunciation most important. Suggestions toward a more efficient method of approach.)

Goettsch, Charles (Chairman). "A Syllabus for a Three-Year High School Course in German," 22 : 118–120. (Outlines of the work in reading, writing, and grammar. For the revision of this report see *School Review,* 23 : 479–481.)

Holzwarth, Charles. "First-Year Latin and First-Year German," 22 : 540–544. (Reply to Senger's article, which see below. Divergence in aims and methods makes comparison impossible.)

Kenngott, A. "Outside Reading in Modern Language Instruction," 22 : 385–390. (On the value of systematic outside readings for the pupil.)

Price, William R. "One Cause of Poor Results in Modern Language Teaching," 22 : 98–102. (This cause is lack of training on the part of teachers. Exhibit of ludicrous letters in French and German by teachers in the state of New York.)

Sachs, Julius. "A Communication," 22 : 347. (A reply to the above article by Price.)

Senger, Harry L. "A Comparison of the First-Year Courses in Latin and German," 22 : 302–314. (An attempted comparison of difficulties in the two. See Chapter I, page 34, for an evaluation.)

Education (Boston)

Holzwarth, Charles. "In Defense of Modern Language Instruction," 35 : 211–219. (Shortcomings of pupils, the system, and the teachers. Shows value of modern languages.)

Mensel, Ernst H. "The One-Unit Preparation in a Modern Language for Admission to College," 35 : 65–76. (Two years should be the minimum. One year does not pay.)

Young, Charles E. "The Other Side of the Modern Language Question," 34 : 316–319. (Wishes to see real reading stressed.)

Bulletin of the New England Modern Language Association

Delamarre, Louis. "Les connaissances que doit posséder un professeur de français dans l'enseignement secondaire," 4 : 12–24. (Some outlines and suggestions for teacher training.)

Hall, G. Stanley. "Some Psychological Aspects of the Teaching of Modern Languages," 4 : 2–11. (Endorses the direct method, and the work in the foreign civilization, and beginning this study early.)

Kayser, C. F., Snow, B., Schinz, A., and Host, A. "The Training of Modern Language Teachers," 4 : 25–35. (Emphasize the need for better teacher training.)

Bulletin of the New York State Modern Language Association

Brown, John Franklin. "The Training of Modern Language Teachers," 1 : 3–6. (Advises one year of postgraduate work, part of which shall be given to teaching.)

Decker, Winfred C. "The Next Step in the Reform of Modern Language Instruction," 1 : 6–12, 41–45. (This step is to be licensing teachers by subject.)

Finley, John H. "The Training of Modern Language Teachers," 1 : 29–36. (Offers a plan for licensing modern-language teachers as special teachers in the state of New York.)

MONTESER, FREDERICK (Chairman). "Syllabus for Modern Foreign Languages," 1 : 15–28, 46–48. (Report of the Committee of New York State Modern Language Association. Direct or compromise method procedures are proposed.)

Bulletin of the High School Teachers' Association of New York City

JONAS, J. B. E. "Fundamental Principles Determining the Selection of Reading Texts in Modern Languages," 48–49 : 32–40. (Tabulation of German texts used in the twenty-three high schools of New York City.)

VARIOUS JOURNALS

BENJAMIN, C. H. "Spanish for Engineering Students," Bulletin of the Society for the Promotion of Engineering Education, 5 : 37–48. (Considers the advantages of Spanish for engineers.)

BENTLEY, J. H. "The Relative Value of German and Latin in the Small High School," *Kentucky Education Association Proceedings*, pages 232–236. (He thinks the practical and educational value about the same. However, he advises putting Latin into the small Kentucky high school which can offer only one foreign language because better teachers and better results can be secured from it "from year to year.")

MEISER, AUGUSTA. "How Can We Make the Study of German More Vital?" *Journal of the Michigan Schoolmasters' Club*, Journal of the 49th meeting, pages 25–30. (Stresses essentials in elementary German. Value of interest, and shows how to arouse this by live interpretations and valuable present-day knowledge.)

TUCKER, ROBERT H. "The Relative Value of German and Latin in a Small High School," *Kentucky Education Association Proceedings*, pages 236–240. (Comes to practically the same conclusions as the foregoing writer.)

WALKER, W. W. "The High School Curriculum without a Foreign Language: Can such a Curriculum be constructed that will put High School Graduates into North Carolina Colleges without Condition? If Not, Why Not?" *North Carolina Teachers' Assembly Proceedings*, 31st session, pages 160–179.

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BOOKS AND PAMPHLETS

Cerf, B. *Essentials of French Pronunciation.* Henry Holt & Co., New York. (Excellent, especially in its directions as to placing sounds without a teacher.)

Hänssler, William. *A Handy Bibliographical Guide for the Study of the Spanish Language and Literature, with Consideration of the Works of Spanish-American Writers.* C. Witter, St. Louis, Missouri. (Useful bibliographies.)

Heath's Pedagogical Library, Vol. 17. *Methods of Teaching Modern Languages.* D. C. Heath & Co., Boston. (Of the thirteen papers four are new; among them is the tentative report of the Committee of Modern Languages of the National Education Association.)

Heyd, Jacob Wilhelm. *Modern Language Teaching.* Bulletin of the First District Normal School, Kirksville, Missouri, Vol. 15, No. 3. (Good suggestions and bibliography.)

Hollister, Horace A. *High School and Class Management. With Introduction by Lotus D. Coffman.* D. C. Heath & Co., Boston. (Only pages 253–255 are devoted to modern-language teaching.)

Judd, Charles Hubbard. *Psychology of High School Subjects.* Ginn & Co., Boston. (Chapter 10 is devoted to modern languages.)

Parker, Samuel Chester. *Methods of Teaching in High Schools.* Ginn & Co., Boston. (Chapter 7 is devoted to instruction in foreign languages.)

Prokosch, E. *The Teaching of German in Secondary Schools.* Bulletin of the University of Texas, No. 41. 55 pages. (On methods, especially the direct, and pronunciation, speaking, reading, grammar, writing, courses of study, the teacher, lesson sketches; with a short bibliography.)

PERIODICALS

Monatshefte für Deutsche Sprache und Pädagogik

Almstedt, Hermann. "The Merits of the Direct Method," 16 : 81–88. (A brief for a compromise method.)

Ferren, H. M. "The Joint Mission of Latin and German in

America," 16 : 177–181. (German instruction is more effective if preceded by study of Latin.)

HÄNSSLER, WILLIAM. "The Disciplinary Value of Modern Language Teaching," 16 : 242–246. (Does not see any disciplinary value in language instruction, hence wants to see language taught for practical ends only.)

HESS, JOHN A. "The *du* Row in a College German Class," 16 : 216–220. (He gives drill in this by getting a group within the class to employ the familiar form of address.)

JONAS, J. B. E. "Die Vorbereitung der Lehrer der neueren Sprachen in Deutschland," 16 : 10–13, 43–50. (Exposition of this teacher-training as employed in Germany, which he advises also for America.)

—— "Richtlinien für die Auswahl des Lesestoffes," 16 : 169–176, 210–216. (Broad survey and practical suggestions.)

KEIDEL, HEINRICH. "Über das Vokabel-Lernen im Unterricht des Deutschen," 16 : 74–81. (Against the new style of learning vocabulary, to which, however, he hardly does justice.)

KENNGOTT, A. "Answers to Questions Concerning the Direct Method," 16 : 13–17. (Advocates a Simon-pure direct method.)

KRAUSE, CARL A. "Literature of Modern Language Methodology in America for 1914," 16 : 255–260. (A bibliography of articles of the year.)

LAUER, EDWARD HENRY. "The Organization of Second-Year College German," 16 : 151–156. (Discusses second-year German in college, its unusual difficulties, and suggests remedies. Valuable statistics.)

OSTHAUS, CARL. "Parliamentary Exercises in German Student Clubs," 16 : 148–150. (A most valuable collection of the commonest phrases used for parliamentary meetings. See Chapter 10 for reprint.)

PRICE, LAWRENCE M. "Natural Methods of Teaching German Composition," 16 : 272–280. (Advises composition work based on a text as against translating into German.)

PURIN, CHARLES M. "The Teacher's Course in German with Special Reference to Phonetics," 16 : 105–115. (Outlines; also bibliography.)

VON KLENZE, CAMILLO. "Die historische Vorbildung unserer Lehrer des Deutschen," 16 : 299–303. (Stresses the necessity of training in the foreign civilization.)

The Educational Review

Fitz-Gerald, John D. "Languages and the College Preparatory Course," 49 : 168–190. (Spanish should not be taught in the high school but reserved for college.)

Waxman, Samuel M. "The Teaching of the Pronunciation of Foreign Languages," 50 : 22–91. (The importance of thorough preparation in phonetics for teachers.)

The School Review

Cipriani, Charlotte J. "The Report of the Joint Committee on Grammatical Nomenclature from the Point of View of the Teaching of French," 23 : 679–686. (Takes issue with the committee concerning the use of certain terms. See also a rejoinder in *School Review*, 24 : 188–195, 1916.)

Schmidt, Lydia. "A Practical Course in Phonetics," 23 : 255–258. (Gives lists of words to teach pronunciation by imitation largely. Useful.)

Starch, Daniel. "Some Experimental Data on the Value of Studying Foreign Languages," 23 : 697–703. (Cf. Chapter I, pages 41–43.)

Education (Boston)

Cooper, William A. "The Direct vs. the Indirect Method of Teaching Modern Languages," 36 : 1–10. (Brief for direct method.)

Handschin, C. H. "Problems in Teaching Modern Languages," 35 : 597–600. (Against translation and in favor of direct-method composition.)

School and Society

Handschin, C. H. "How May the Report of the Committee on Modern Languages Prove Helpful?" Vol. 1, No. 23 : 806–813. (Discussion of various phases of language teaching touched on in the report.)

University of Kansas News-Bulletin (Lawrence, Kansas)

Engel, E. F. "A Decade of German in Kansas High Schools," Vol. 15, No. 15. (Statistics concerning instruction in German in Kansas, 1905–1914.)

Bulletin of the New England Modern Language Association (Boston)

Ballard, Anna Woods. "The Direct Method for American Schools, with Special Reference to the Work of the Second and Third Years," Vol. 5, No. 1. (Good suggestions and devices.)

Geddes, James, Jr. (Chairman). "Report of the Committee of the New England Modern Language Association on the Preparation of Teachers of French and German in Secondary Schools," 5 : 41–62. (Sets up desirable ends. Direct-method work endorsed.)

Bulletin of the New York State Modern Language Association (Albany)

Decker, Winfred (Chairman). "The Training and Licensing of Teachers," Vol. 1, No. 4 : 41–45. (A committee report recommending special licenses for teachers of French and German.)

Monteser, Frederick (Chairman). "Aids to Teachers of Modern Languages," Vol. 1, No. 5 : 49–53. (A committee report containing bibliography.)

Proceedings of the National Education Association

Appelmann, Anton H. "Germany's Recent Progress in Secondary Education," 53 : 137–144. (Makes note of recent movements in Germany.)

University of Illinois Bulletin (Urbana)

Dillon, Therese. "Wastes in the Teaching of German," Vol. 12, No. 21 : 271. (Outlines only.)

Johnston, O. K. "Experiments Profitable for Language Teachers," Vol. 12, No. 21 : 268–269. (Suggestions as to possible and desirable experiments in modern-language teaching.)

Kenngott, A. "Supplementary Reading in Modern Language Instruction," Vol. 12, No. 21 : 269. (Suggestions on how to use outside reading.)

Reichman, Charlotte. "Recent Publications," Vol. 12, No. 21 : 271–277. (Reviews of some recent elementary texts.)

Rorem, S. O. "A Few Knotty Problems of French Teaching in High School," Vol. 12, No. 21 : 277–279. (On pronunciation, parrot-like memorizing, making the subject too easy.)

Seymour, A. R. "Business Spanish in the High School," Vol. 12, No. 21 : 279–280.

Stuart, F. L. "The Demand for Spanish," Vol. 12, No. 21 : 264–268. (Value of Spanish as a high-school study. Influence of Spanish on French and English literature.)

VARIOUS JOURNALS

Caplinger, W. J. "The Scope and Purpose of Modern Languages in the High School," *Kentucky Education Association Proceedings*, 44th meeting, pages 222–226.

Flagstad, Chr. B. "Den pedagogiske Vaerdi af undervisning i fremmede Sprog," *Vor Ungdom*, January, 1915, pages 1–21. (Value of study of foreign languages.)

Greenhaf, Jeanne H. "The Use of Phonetics in the Teaching of Modern Languages," *Proceedings of Annual Meeting of California High School Teachers' Association*, pages 156–161. (A brief for the use of phonetics with examples from French.)

Koenig, A. E. "Suggestions for Standardizing German Instruction," *Minnesota Education Association Journal*, 52d annual meeting, pages 155–162.

Luquiens, F. B. "The National Need of Spanish," *Yale Review*, 4 : 699–711. (Value of Spanish for school and commercial purposes.)

Meyer, F. "Expedients and Supplementary Reading in German in the Upper Grades," *Wisconsin Teachers' Association Proceedings*, 63d annual session, pages 229–233. (Devices and suggestions.)

Riemer, G. C. L. "Essentials in the Acquisition of German," *Pennsylvania State Education Proceedings*, pages 274–281. (The aim should be intelligent reading. Essentials are: good pronunciation, live grammar with drill, study of vocabulary, and *Realia*.)

1916

BOOKS AND PAMPHLETS

Bobbitt, Franklin. "What the Schools Teach and Might Teach," *Cleveland Education Survey*, 1916, pages 94–97.

(Valuable discussion of foreign languages in our schools, especially in the lower grades.)

Brown, Rollo Walter. *How the French Boy Learns to Write.* Harvard University Press, Cambridge. 2d edition; 260 pages. (Valuable on side of methods of composition in mother tongue, which may prove stimulating for modern-language teaching also.)

Krause, Carl A. *The Direct Method in Modern Languages.* Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. (Reprint of ten papers which had appeared variously, including suggestions for teaching Walter-Krause's *Beginners' German.*)

Prokosch, E. *The Sounds and History of the German Language.* Henry Holt & Co., New York. 212 pages.

Starch, Daniel. *Educational Measurements.* The Macmillan Company, New York. (Chapters 12 and 13 deal with measuring ability in German and French.)

PERIODICALS

The Modern Language Journal

Deihl, J. D. "Individual Differences and Notebook Work in Modern Foreign Languages," 1 : 52–58. (For contents see Chapter XII, page 266.)

Gianella, Amelia F. "The Use of Flash Cards for Drill in French," 1 : 96–99. (Use recommended and expounded.)

Hervey, William Addison. "Oral Practice — Its Purpose, Means, and Difficulties," 1 : 79–91. (Brief for it, with suggestive procedures. Very useful. Reprinted in University of the State of New York Bulletin, 628 : 23–35.)

Holbrook, Richard T. "The Editing of French Texts for Schools and Colleges," 1 : 18–32. (Discusses the texts and various phases of the editorial apparatus.)

Kayser, C. F. "The Federation and the Proposed Modern Language Journal," 1 : 1–9. (Account of the progress toward the formation of a National Federation. Reprinted in University of the State of New York Bulletin, 628 : 14–21.)

Krause, Carl A. "Literature of Modern Language Methodology in America for 1915," 1 : 33–40. (A bibliography of the articles of the year.)

Laub, Allen V. "The Review in Modern Language Teaching,"

1 : 92–95. (Stresses the importance of the review and of drill. Valuable.)

Méras, Albert A. "Possibilities in a Reading Lesson," 1 : 10–17. (Many devices and procedures summarized and expounded.)

Mersereau, E. B. "How Can We Create an Interest in Outside Reading in our German Classes, and How Direct It?" 1 : 111–112. (Brief for outside reading.)

Purin, Charles M. "The Direct Teaching of Modern Foreign Languages in American High Schools," 1 : 43–51. (Explains the difference between the direct and the reform methods.)

Reichling, G. A. "The Correlation between the Ability to Classify German Vocables into Their Semasiological Categories and the Knowledge of Their Exact Signification," 1 : 105–109. (A useful study. See Chapter I, page 36.)

Stroebe, Lilian L. "Das Studium der Geographie und Landeskunde Deutschlands," 1 : 59–71. (Stresses their importance. Valuable bibliography.)

Wood, Charlotte. "Socialization of the Modern Foreign Language Recitation," 1 : 100–104. (Valuable hints on how to introduce the spirit of the foreign civilization into the classroom and how to enliven the classroom work.)

Monatshefte für Deutsche Sprache und Pädagogik

Cochran, E. E. "Methods of Teaching German in Oklahoma," 17 : 352–355. (Prospects for more direct-method work, which has thus far proved satisfactory in Oklahoma.)

Griebsch, Max. "Warum die direkte Methode?" 17 : 293–301. (Brief for the direct method. Argumentation from psychological and pedagogical grounds.)

Hamann, F. A. "Der Gebrauch der Phonetik im neusprachlichen Unterricht in der High School," 17 : 205–207. (Pronunciation by the imitative method.)

House, Roy Temple. "Punctuation in Beginning Class," 17 : 7–8. (A handy collection of rules concerning German punctuation.)

Keidel, Heinrich. "Activities, Methods, and Principles of German Clubs in American Colleges," 17 : 116–120, 147–154. (Useful for all interested in such clubs. See Chapter X, pages 231–232, for contents.)

Kenngott, A. "Outside Reading as an Important Factor in

Modern Language Instruction," 17 : 89–97. (Similar in trend to his articles mentioned earlier in this bibliography. Useful lists of readings for boys and for girls.)

KRAMER, EMIL. "Sprachübungen in der Elementarschule," 17 : 301–305. (Stresses value of systematic drills based upon texts.)

MEYER, FREDERICK. "German in the Grades : Aims, Matter, and Method," 17 : 9–16. (Discussion of classroom practice and devices.)

SCHERER, PETER. "Über den inneren Zusammenhang des deutschen Kursus in der Elementarschule und High School," 17 : 257–263. (Emphasizes proper correlation between the two. Statement of aims.)

STROEBE, LILIAN L. "Wie kann sich der Lehrer eine gute Kenntnis des deutschen Lebens erwerben? Ein Kapitel zur Frage der Weiterbildung der Lehrer der deutschen Sprache," 17 : 1–7. (Gives bibliography for those who would read at first hand on German life and institutions.)

TITSWORTH, PAUL E. "The Attitude of the American Teacher of German toward Germany," 17 : 195–199. (Admonition to view European war dispassionately.)

VON UNWERTH, FRIDA. "Wie weit soll der Gebrauch der englischen Sprache im neusprachlichen Unterricht zulässig sein?" 17 : 307–313. (English may be used where it saves time or serves more thorough understanding.)

WEIGEL, JOHN C. "The Reorganization of Teachers' Training in German in Our Colleges and Universities," 17 : 16–20, 34–44. (Exposition of provisions for teacher-training in the University of Chicago.)

YOUNG, CAROLINE. "Modern Language Study as a Contribution to the Practical, Disciplinary Training of the Student," 17 : 45–52. (A brief for this study, supported by testimony from various persons.)

The Educational Review

BALLARD, ANNA W. "The Direct Method and Its Application to American Schools," 51 : 447–456. (French pronunciation can be taught only by use of exact phonetics.)

KRAUSE, CARL A. "Why the Direct Method for a Modern Language?" 51 : 254–267. (Various reasons adduced.)

WHITNEY, MARIAN P. "The Place of Reading in the Modern

Language Course," 51 : 189–197. (Reading vs. translating. Intensive and extensive reading advised.)

Zick, Henry. "The Teaching of Modern Languages in European Secondary Schools," 51 : 488–510. (A report of foreign sojourn in France, England, and Germany, with some attention to direct-method work in those countries.)

The School Review

Bovée, A. G. "French Phonetic Training in the University High School" (Chicago), 24 : 675–679. (Presents a practical scheme of teaching French pronunciation. Charts of French sounds.)

Deihl, J. D. "A Plan for Handling Advanced Reading Texts in Modern Foreign Languages," 24 : 359–364. (Suggestions for effective study of reading texts in the third and fourth years of high school.)

—— "Directed Teaching and Directed Observation — A Correction and an Explanation," 24 : 515–520. (An exposition of teacher-training at the University of Wisconsin.)

Education (Boston)

Sutherland, W. A. "Grimm's Law and Its Relation to the Study of Foreign Languages in High Schools," 37 : 49–50. (Shows value of knowing this law even for beginners.)

School and Society

Porterfield, A. W. "The Study of German in the Future," 4 : 473–480. (Value of German for Americans. Prognostications.)

Rendtorff, K. G. "War and the Teacher of Modern Languages," 3 : 41–45. (General considerations concerning their conduct and teaching.)

Modern Language Bulletin (Los Angeles)

Espinosa, Aurelio M. "La Ensenanza del Español," Vol. 2, No. 2 : 6–8. (Thorough preparation for teachers of Spanish needed. German and French teachers should not teach Spanish without special preparation.)

Johnston, Oliver M. "A Suggestion with Reference to the In-

terpretation of French Grammar," Vol. 2, No. 1 : 2–5. (Useful exposition of how to teach effectively the position of adjectives, the subjunctive mode, and the past tenses of the indicative mode.)

WHEELER, CARLETON AMES. "Why German?" Vol. 2, No. 3 : 1–7. (Gives reasons for continuing the present study of German in our schools.)

Bulletin of the New England Modern Language Association

BAGSTER-COLLINS, E. W. "The Work of a Teachers' College in the Training of Modern Language Teachers," 6 : 33–42. (Teacher-training must include courses in education, special method, phonetics, observation, and practice-teaching.)

SNEDDEN, DAVID. "Some Problems of Special Training of Modern Language Teachers," 6 : 26–33. (Aims most important.)

TALBOT, L. RAYMOND. "A College Normal Course for the Training of Students to Become Teachers of Modern Languages," 6 : 22–26. (Outlines the teacher-training course in French at Boston University.)

Bulletin of the New York State Modern Language Association

HYDE, ISABELLE. "French as a Commercial Subject," Vol. 2, No. 7 : 83–89. (Mentions callings requiring a knowledge of French. Outlines for a three-year course in commercial French for girls.)

ORR-CARSON, AGNES. "The Question Before Us," Vol. 2, No. 4 : 43–52. (Emphasis on tangible results. Underrates value of methods.)

SACHS, JULIUS. "The Essentials in the Preparation of a Teacher of Modern Languages," Vol. 2, No. 7 : 83–89. (Phonetic training and practical mastery of spoken and written language are essential.)

The Wisconsin Association of Modern Foreign Language Teachers

GOODNIGHT, S. H. "The Choice of Reading Matter," Bulletin No. 1 : 3–9. (Discussion of the best types of reading matter for German classes.)

MENGER, F. J., JR. "Modern Language Study as a Contribution to the Ethical and Cultural Development of the Stu-

dent," Bulletin No. 1 : 12–16. (Language study is valuable for literary, social, and cultural purposes.)

Ruddock, Edith L. "Types of Class Work," Bulletin No. 1 : 9–11. (Argumentation concerning methods of teaching.)

Waters, Elizabeth. "President's Address," Bulletin No. 3 : 3–6. (Some essentials of a good teacher stressed.)

Young, Charles E. "The Status of Modern Language Teacher Training in the Colleges and Normal Schools of Wisconsin," Bulletin No. 3 : 6–8. (A statistical report giving a valuable summary, mostly of the work in German.)

Association of Modern Language Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland

Hervey, William A. "Report of the Committee on Investigation and Resolutions," *Proceedings of the Third Annual Meeting*, pages 4–13. (Presents a plan for an aural and oral test for admission to college in French, German, and Spanish. Discussion follows. Valuable.)

University of Illinois Bulletin

Brown, J. Stanley. "Supervised Study in Modern Languages," Vol. 13, No. 21 : 301–304. (Exposition of the plan used at Joliet, Illinois. See Chapter 12 for note.)

"Examination of the Public School System of the City of Buffalo." Education Department of the State of New York, Albany, New York.

Fitz-Gerald, John D. "Reports on the Equipment of a High School Library for French and for Spanish," Vol. 13, No. 21 : 293–296. (Valuable book lists. See Chapter X, pages 218–227, for partial reprint of lists.)

Price, William R. "Modern Languages: Report on Teaching in the Elementary Schools," pages 105–109; "Report on High Schools," pages 131–133. (A survey by the state specialist in modern languages, with recommendations.)

"Report on Supervised Language Study. Questionnaire," Vol. 13, No. 21 : 296–301. (Valuable discussion and statistics.)

The Sierra Educational News (San Francisco)

Proceedings of the California High School Teachers' Association

Cooper, William A. "Collegiate Training of High School Teachers of German," Vol. 12, No. 8 : 127–134. (Exposition of plan of teacher-training at Stanford University, consisting of special-method course and practice-teaching within the department, and coaching weak students.)

Turner, L. M. "Les Limitations de la Méthode directe," Vol. 12, No. 8 : 140–143. (Polemic against.)

University of the State of New York Bulletin (Albany, New York)

The Equipment of the Modern Foreign Language Teacher

Ballard, Anna Woods. "The Teaching of French Pronunciation by the Use of Phonetic Symbols," Bulletin No. 628 : 46–51. (Presents scheme of teaching pronunciation by the use of phonetic symbols.)

Jonas, J. B. E. "The Equipment of the Modern Foreign Language Teacher," pages 3–9. (Discussion of teacher-training, including suggestion for lengthening of the school year in order to make possible a sabbatical year.)

Méras, A. A. "College Training of Teachers of Modern Languages," pages 10–13. (Outlines graduate course and a state examination as to the oral and aural ability of candidates.)

Paget, Frances. "Some Points in Technic in Modern Language Teaching," pages 36–45. (Discussion of pronunciation, dictation, reading, conversation, writing in French.)

Publications of the Society for the Advancement of Scandinavian Study (Urbana, Illinois)

Elmquist, A. Louis. "Directions for the Study of a Foreign Language Reading Lesson," 3 : 313–315. (Directions for studying a reading text; i.e., read silently to see if meaning becomes plain, and repeat this several times if necessary before reading the context. If it does not become clear, look up the unfamiliar words, etc.)

—— "The Direct Method Applied to the Teaching of Scandinavian in America," 3 : 304–312. (Discusses value of direct

method in Scandinavian classes which are mostly made up of pupils conversant with conversational Scandinavian, and decides that even here a proper use of direct method is advisable.)

Michelet, Marion. "The Scandinavian Languages in Modern Language Study," 3 : 213–226. (Discusses the teachers of Scandinavian and their training, which she finds lacking in English. Records a lack of proper texts. Questions whether the direct method of teaching is wise for Scandinavian classes. Proposes work to be done to improve Scandinavian teaching, especially by way of keeping the teacher informed and in touch with the latest advances.)

VARIOUS JOURNALS

Barrows, Sarah T. "Experimental Phonetics as an Aid to the Study of Language," *Pedagogical Seminary*, 23 : 63–75. (Shows value of experiments in phonetics. Supplies a few experiments with records.)

Bjarnson, J. S. "The Modern Language Problem," *American Schoolmaster*, 9 : 63–71. (Champions the general tenets of the reform method.)

Campbell, H. D. "College Credit for Elementary Work in Modern Languages," Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States, *Proceedings of 22d Annual Meeting*, pages 69–75.

Fiske, G. C., Cerf, B., and Kind, J. L. "Foreign Language Study," Bulletin of the University of Wisconsin. 14 pages. (Presents seven arguments for language study: (1) mental discipline; (2) value to pupil's English; (3) value of the foreign polite literature; (4) value as interpreting history; (5) value of the scientific literature in the foreign language; (6) value for business purposes; (7) value for good citizenship.)

"German Games and English Books." Department of German, State Normal School, Emporia, Kansas. (Valuable especially for the games, which are suited to junior high school.)

Heyd, J. W. "Modern Language Series," Bulletin of Kirksville, Missouri, Normal School, No. 2. 15 pages. (Discusses translation, the teacher, method, conversation, composition, and building of words. Bibliography.)

Prokosch, E. "The Foreign Language Teacher's Bulletin," Bulletin of the University of Texas, No. 20. 18 pages. (Dis-

cusses written work, courses of study, the teacher, gives lesson sketches, etc.)

Ramierez de Arrellano, R. M. "Practical Spanish in High Schools," *High School Quarterly* (New York), 4 : 123–137. (Outlines for a three-year high-school course.)

Schlenker, Carl. "Bulletin for Teachers of German," Bulletin of the University of Minnesota, No. 8. 41 pages. (Valuable bibliography covering German only.)

Whitney, Marion P. "Vassar College Graduate Course in German," Vassar College Bulletin, 6 : 2. (Announcement of a course of study. Suggestive as a one-year graduate course.)

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BOOKS AND PAMPHLETS

Douglass, Aubrey Augustus. "The Junior High School." Part III of the Fifteenth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education. Public School Publishing Company, Bloomington, Illinois. 157 pages. (See pages 69–71 only, as specifically to languages.)

Koos, Leonard V. *The Administration of Secondary School Units.* University of Chicago Press. 194 pages. (See Chapter 2. On basis of questionnaire returns he states that the direct and a combination of this and grammar-translation method are most prevalent in schools. Aims are stated to be: good pronunciation; ability to understand and to speak the language; ability to read and to translate; knowledge of grammar, *realia;* and aid to the pupil's English.)

Monroe, W. S., De Voss, J. C., and Kelly, F. J. *Educational Tests and Measurements.* Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston. 309 pages. (See pages 234–236. Latin only is discussed.)

Oliver, T. E. *Suggestions and References for Modern Language Teachers.* University of Illinois School of Education Bulletin, No. 18. 84 pages. (Valuable for bibliographical data.)

Scherer, P. *Modern Language Instruction: Why and Where? A Symposium.* Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. 24 pages. (A collection of opinions on the question of continuing instruction in German in the United States. Mostly favorable.)

Schilling, H. K. *Bibliography of the Best Books for the Study of German in High Schools and Junior Colleges.* University of

California Press. 20 pages. (Useful for young teachers and others.)

Snedden, David. *Problems of Secondary Education.* Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston. 333 pages. (See pages 150–168. Advises starting modern-language work in junior high school and urges closer definition of aims than obtains at present.)

PERIODICALS

The Modern Language Journal

Aron, A. W. "Tense Terminology of the German Subjunctive," 2 : 78–83. (Discussion of the best names for conditional and subjunctive forms. An attempt to improve terminology.)

Bennett, Faye. "Translation Study and Immediate Study of German : A Comparison," 2 : 114–131. (The superiority of immediate study of a foreign language over translation study is shown for the retention of words.)

Bierman, H. "Original Dramatization in Modern Languages," 1 : 242–246. (An exposition of work in dramatization in French. Useful.)

Burchimal, Mary C. "What Should an Examination Disclose?" 1 : 163–171. (Discussion of certain requirements in the examinations of the College Entrance Examination Board; also of certain types of desirable and undesirable questions.)

Churchman, Philip H. "The Study of French Literature," 2 : 53–67. (Valuable discussion of French literature as a school subject. Discussion of what texts and problems should be included in the course in schools.)

Coleman, A. "Practical Phonetics in Junior College French," 1 : 155–162, 193–201. (Helpful and detailed exposition of procedures in teaching.)

Decker, W. C. "Results of the Examinations for Approval for Oral Credit; the Licensing of Teachers of Modern Languages," 1 : 125–135. (The state of New York has, since 1916, conducted special examinations for teachers of German and French who desire to be allowed to teach their language orally. Some figures are given and the good results of these examinations are noted.)

Gerig-Edwards, Rosalie. "A Demonstration of Spanish Classroom Work," 2 : 109–113. (Account of classroom exercises which were used in a public demonstration. Useful.)

Grummann, Paul H. "Problems of the Elementary German Course," 2 : 102–108. (Attempt to evaluate the various kinds of direct-method work in elementary courses; also useful devices.)

Hatch, J. C. "The Downward Extension of the Modern Language Curriculum," 2 : 47–52. (In favor of beginning work in modern languages below the high school.)

Hess, John A. "Practical Phonetics for German," 1 : 119–124. (Brief for use of phonetics in elementary classes; also useful bibliography.)

—— "The Use of Pictures in the College German Class," 1 : 308–314. (Description of numerous pictorial helps, with suggestions as to their use.)

Kleinpell, Irma. "Some Devices for Successful Work at the Blackboard," 1 : 295–301. (A summary of the various uses to be made of the blackboard, with some original ideas.)

Krause, C. A. "Literature of Modern Language Methodology in America for 1916," 2 : 29–43.

Kurts, Paul H. "A Tabulation of German Modals," 1 : 182–184. (Useful hints on teaching them.)

Luquiens, F. B. "The Teaching of Spanish from the Latin-American Point of View," 1 : 277–284. (This means not necessarily to teach the Latin-American pronunciation but the Latin-American life and literature.)

McKenzie, Kenneth. "The Question of Spanish Pronunciation," 2 : 21–28. (A questionnaire brought out that sixty-six professors favor teaching Castilian while only nine favor other pronunciations. Arguments are also quoted.)

Méras, Albert A. "French Examinations," 1 : 285–294. (Excellent discussion with examples of kinds of questions.)

Mersereau, E. B. "Written Home Work in First Year German," 1 : 247–249. (Advises some use of English-into-German translation as written work.)

Morgan, B. Q. "In Defense of Translation," 1 : 235–241. (Adduces seven arguments for use of translation in our classes. See Chapter 8.)

Patterson, A. S. "Language Fact and Language Habit," 1 : 136–143. (Lays stress upon necessity of oral use of language.)

Pechin, L. H. "The Place of Poetry in the Teaching of French," 2 : 9–18. (Shows the value of poetry in teaching language and ideals. Many examples given.)

Powers, Katherine G. "Some Ideas for the Teaching of French in Secondary Schools," 1:302–307. (Descriptions of numerous excellent devices for arousing interest and carrying on work.)

Roux, Louis A. "The Influence of College Entrance Examinations on the Teaching of French," 1:172–181. (Shows that their influence has been beneficial and that they influence the kinds of texts used and the subjects stressed in the courses. They should further operate to make aural and oral work the rule in all secondary-school courses.)

Skidmore, Mark. "The Direct Method," 1:215–225. (Results of a questionnaire. Definitions of direct method and a vote as to its popularity.)

Titsworth, Paul E. "Devices for Classroom Procedure," 2:68–77. (Gives devices for oral and written composition, for reading, grammar, dictation, word study, etc.)

Waxman, Samuel W. "A Jeremiad on Modern Language Teaching," 2:95–101. (Against too many methods and against requiring too many unfit pupils to study modern languages.)

Young, Caroline M. "The German Club," 1:202–214. (Very useful on how to organize and conduct such clubs; includes programs.)

Monatshefte für Deutsche Sprache und Pädagogik

Appelmann, Anton. "The Essentials of the Direct Method," 18:203–210. (General discussion of direct method and short summary of its principles.)

Collins, Harry T. "Reference Books for the Teachers of German," 18:10–13. (Short bibliography for the teacher.)

Graves, Arthur Rollin. "Die Grammatik im Anfangsunterricht," 18:311–316. (Detailed grammars should not be used in elementary instruction; the teacher should supply whatever grammatical matter is needed. Illustrations.)

Grummann, Paul H. "The Question of Methods," 18: 281–284. (Inveighs against unworthy reading matter in German classes. Observations on inductive method.)

—— "The Teaching of Vocabulary," 18:136–139. (Useful means: analogy, synonyms, antonyms, etymology.)

Kenngott, A. "Die Technik der direkten Methode," 18: 108–119. (Excellent discussion of procedures in direct method.)

Koenig, Alfred E. "Wider den Artikel 'Die neuen Sprachunter-

richts-Methoden,'" 18 : 165–168. (Reply to Wischkaemper's article, *Monatshefte für Deutsche Sprache und Pädagogik*, 8 : 139–145.)

Meyer, Fr. "Where Authorities Differ and Fail," 18 : 199–203. (Points out errors and inconsistencies which he asserts he found in half a dozen elementary German textbooks.)

Münzinger, K. F. "Where Authorities Differ — und wo sie Fehlten," 18 : 280–286. (Reply to Meyer, "Where Authorities Differ and Fail," *Monatshefte für Deutsche Sprache und Pädagogik*, 18 : 199–263.)

Purin, Charles M. "Foreign Languages in the High Schools of Wisconsin," 18 : 98–108. (Statistics. Practical suggestions for teachers.)

Weigel, John C. "Qualitative vs. Quantitative Standards," 18 : 173–180, 194–199. (Discussion of individual differences and the means of providing for these.)

Wischkaemper, Richard. "Die neuen Sprachunterrichts methoden," 18 : 129–135. (A polemic against the direct methods in modern-language teaching.)

The Educational Review

Arnold, Frank R. "Redemption Through *Realien*," 54 : 360–365. (Urges the use of *realia* as an aid to interest.)

Paget, Frances. "Technique in Modern Language Teaching," 54 : 344–359. (Reprint of article in University of State of New York Bulletin. See under bibliography for 1916.)

Paschall, Clarence. "Modern Language Study," 54 : 344–359. (Advises appealing to reason through the feelings; i.e., the emotions should be enlisted in learning.)

The School Review

Starch, Daniel. "The Value of Studying Foreign Languages," 25 : 243–248. (See Chapter I for contents.)

Education

Super, Charles W. "Foreign Languages in Our Public Schools," 38 : 42–51. (No foreign language has any considerable practical value.)

School and Society

Handschin, C. H. "The Study of German during the War," 6 : 253–256. (Argues values and cites European practice of continuing German during the war.)

Modern Language Bulletin (Los Angeles, California)

Buehner, V. "The Study of German after the War," Vol. 3, No. 2 : 8–9. (Refers to the attitude of the General Committee of the Modern Language Association of England toward the teaching of German during the war.)

Chamberlain, C. D. "Hints on Elementary Spanish Teaching," Vol. 1, No. 1 : 15–16. (Advocates the conversational method and informal classroom procedure.)

Cox, Mary P. "The Spanish Section's Tour of Spain," Vol. 3, No. 2 : 3. (Plan of the Spanish Section of the Modern Language Association to make out a course of study concerning Spanish literature, art, and all things of interest to those who would make a tour of Spain.)

Gerig-Edwards, R. "Bringing the Club into the Modern Language Classroom," Vol. 3, No. 3 : 14–17. (The plan is to organize the class into a club and to carry on the classroom work in the most free and informal manner.)

Meisnest, F. W. "German in the High Schools of the State of Washington," Vol. 3, No. 2 : 1–3. (A statement of aims. Believes in the direct method.)

Riddle, Lawrence M. "The Modern Language Teacher during the War," Vol. 1, No. 2 : 10–11. (Mentions the service rendered by teachers in equipping the soldier with a knowledge of foreign languages.)

Schilling, H. K. "The Value of Translation," Vol. 3, No. 2 : 3–6. (Translation is valuable. Addendum, *Modern Language Bulletin*, Vol. 3, No. 3 : 17. But, at best, translation is only an intellectual exercise, the use of which should be reduced.)

Schulz, R. E. "Quousque tandem?" Vol. 3, No. 1 : 11–15. (Brief for care in teaching Spanish pronunciation.)

Schwabe, P. E. "The Use of Wall Pictures for Conversation and Composition in German," Vol. 3, No. 3 : 11–14. (Shows the values.)

Shiels, Albert. "On the Method of Teaching a Modern Language," Vol. 3, No. 4 : 1–4. (Discussion of the grammatical and direct or natural methods.)

Snyder, Helen D. "Suggestions for Intermediate Schools," Vol. 3, No. 4 : 14–18. (How to make classroom work informal and interesting.)

Watson, Lella. "Modern Languages in the Junior College," Vol. 3, No. 4 : 18–20. (States conditions surrounding modern-language work in the junior college.)

Compte Rendu du Troisième Congrès de Langue et de Littérature Française

Held May 25 and 26, 1917. 69 pages. Fédération de l'Alliance Française, 200 Fifth Avenue, New York.

McKenzie, Kenneth. "The Study of French in the Middle West," pages 23–27. (States that the position of French is weak in our schools, but expects improvement. Plea for same.)

Nitze, William A. "The Teaching of Romance Languages in the College," pages 27–39. (Statistics of enrollments. Champions French in regard to certain values, as against Spanish and Italian.)

Hispania

Hispania is a quarterly journal devoted to the interests of teachers of Spanish, etc. Organization number, November, 1917. Stanford University, California, and New York. Bibliographies and reviews in every number.

Espinosa, A. M. "Editorial," pages 19–23. (Outlines the policy of the journal.)

Fitz-Gerald, John D. "The Opportunity and the Responsibility of the Teacher of Spanish," pages 11–18. (Discusses the preparation of Spanish teachers and the employment of foreigners as teachers of Spanish.)

Wilkins, L. A. "On the Threshold," pages 1–10. (Historical sketch of the American Association of Teachers of Spanish, under whose auspices *Hispania* is published. Plans and policies for the future.)

Bulletin of the New England Modern Language Association (Boston)

SNOW, WILLIAM B. "Wanted, a Teacher," 7 : 33–48. (Details the requisites of the modern-language teacher.)

STUART, DONALD. "The Reader on the College Entrance Examination Board," 7 : 3–24. (Difficulties of readers. Appeals for adherence to standards set up by colleges.)

Bulletin of the New York State Modern Language Association

DAVIDSEN, H. C. "German Texts for High School and College," Vol. 3, No. 5 : 36–47. (Contains a preparatory list of texts selected by the committee on texts. A supplement to this list is found in the February, 1918, issue of the above-named bulletin.)

GRAY, CLAUDINE. "French Texts for High Schools and Colleges," Vol. 3, No. 5 : 47–58. (Does for French what the preceding list does for German.)

STROEBE, LILIAN L. "Report of the Committee on Aims and Scope of *Realien*," Vol. 4, No. 2 : 8–17. (A plea for work in *realia* for French, German, and Spanish, with bibliographies for each. Useful.)

Bulletin of the Wisconsin Association of Foreign Language Teachers
(Madison, Wisconsin)

DEIHL, J. D. "Preliminary Report on the Status of Foreign Language Instruction in Wisconsin High Schools in 1917–1918," No. 7 : 2–3. (Statistics. Contends that language instruction is being challenged to show values and that the language teachers should meet the challenge unitedly.)

MORGAN, B. Q. "What is a Minimum?" No. 4 : 4–5. (Comments on same by Carl A. Krause and A. Kenngott, Bulletin of the Wisconsin Association of Foreign Language Teachers, No. 5 : 5–9, 1917. In favor of retaining translation as a classroom exercise.)

"Reasons for the Study of Foreign Languages," No. 4 : 3–4. (Interesting summary including fifteen points.)

"The Goal for a Two-Year Course in a Modern Language in an American High School," No. 5 : 5. (The goal is (1) reading; (2) understanding; (3) knowledge of foreign life; (4) grammar.)

Bulletin of the High School Teachers' Association of New York City

Wilkins, Lawrence A. "How Shall We Improve the Study of Spanish?" No. 65 : 3–12, April. (Rather enthusiastic brief for study of Spanish. Deplores lack of preparation of teachers of Spanish. General suggestions toward improving Spanish instruction.)

Bulletin of High Points (Board of Education, New York City)

Wilkins, Lawrence A. "Anent the Study of Spanish," No. 2 : 1–4, May. (Seeks to help young teachers by suggestions.)

—— "Fallacies that Exist in the Teaching of Spanish," No. 7 : 5–11, December. (General suggestions. Spanish is the language of the only great neutral in the world today.)

—— "On Teaching How to Study Modern Languages," No. 6 : 1–4, November. (Hints on the teaching of Spanish.)

—— "Requirements of an Up-to-Date Modern-Language Teacher," No. 5 : 2–9, October. (Details desirable equipment of Spanish teacher.)

VARIOUS JOURNALS

Deihl, J. D. "The Status of Modern Language Teaching in Wisconsin High Schools," *The Wisconsin Journal of Education* (Madison), Vol. 49, No. 8 : 215–219. (Status of Latin and German satisfactory. French is much neglected and the Spanish movement has not yet come to Wisconsin.)

Doyle, J. H. "Purpose in Teaching Foreign Language," *Pedagogical Seminary*, 24 : 350–366. (Discusses Latin and Greek more than the modern tongues.)

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BOOKS AND PAMPHLETS

Broussard, James F. *Elements of French Pronunciation, with Phonetic Drills and Transcriptions.* Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. 96 pages. (Supplementary to Ballard-Tilly, *Phonetic French Reader*, Charles Scribner's Sons.)

Butler, Nicholas Murray. *Annual Report of President Butler.* Columbia University, New York. 57 pages. (Wishes to see

modern-language instruction reorganized along more practical lines.)

CERF, BARRY. *A Four-Year Course in French for High Schools.* High School Series, No. 18, July, 1918, University of Wisconsin, Madison. 27 pages. (Outlines and bibliographical references. Treatise on pronunciation.)

FITZ-GERALD, JOHN D. *Importance of Spanish to the American Citizen.* Benj. H. Sanborn Company, Boston; 1918. 20 pages. (Useful for its historical and literary notes.)

HIGHET, MARY E. *Conservation of the German Language as a War Measure.* Elmira College, New York; 1918. 7 pages. (Favors the continuation of instruction in German.)

HILL, HINDA TEAGUE, et al. *The Teaching of Modern Languages in the High Schools.* Bulletin of the North Carolina State Normal and Agricultural College, Greensboro, North Carolina. 54 pages. (Good suggestions and devices.)

INGLIS, ALEXANDER. *Principles of Secondary Education.* Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston. 714 pages. (Useful discussion of the values inherent in modern-language study.)

MORENO-LACALLE, JULIAN. *Elements of Spanish Pronunciation.* Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. xxvi + 100 pages. (Very useful and practically the first for purposes of teachers.)

MÜNZINGER, KARL F. *Phonetic German Reader.* Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. xxvii + 18 pages. (Contains essentially the same material as Ballard-Krause, *Short Stories for Oral German*, Charles Scribner's Sons.)

NITZE, W. A., and WILKINS, E. H. *A Handbook of French Phonetics.* Henry Holt & Co., New York. 160 pages.

WILKINS, LAWRENCE A. *Spanish in the High Schools: A Handbook of Methods, with Special Reference to the Junior High Schools.* Benj. H. Sanborn Company. 265 pages. (Advocates an eclectic method in teaching. Contains devices and a useful bibliography.)

PERIODICALS

The Modern Language Journal

ANGUS, FRANCIS R. "Advanced High School French in War Times," 2:352–359. (Outlines of third-year French at University of Chicago High School.)

BAGSTER-COLLINS, E. W. "A Brief Study Showing the Relation between the Vocabulary and Treatment of the Annotated Reading Test," 2 : 341–351. (Vocabulary in reading tests should be graded from easy to more difficult.)

BARNES, FRANK COE. "Shall German Be Dropped from Our Schools?" 2 : 187–202. (Symposium of opinions, for the greatest part favorable to the continuance of German.)

BETZ, JEANETTE. "The Function of Dictation in the Teaching of Modern Languages," 2 : 150–156. (Shows value of this work and shows typical mistakes made.)

CLARKE, CHARLES C. "The Phonograph in Modern Language Teaching," 3 : 116–122. (Phonograph is useful for teaching pronunciation (French).)

DEIHL, J. D. "Choosing a Grammar for Beginners," 2 : 368–373. (Attempt to evaluate types of grammars.)

DOWNER, CHARLES A. "Teaching American Soldiers a Little French," 2 : 239–247. (Account of work done among soldiers.)

ENGEL, E. F. "The Laboratory Method in Theory and Practice," 2 : 215–226. (A very suggestive and carefully worked out scheme which offers suggestions of value for teaching German.)

FARNHAM, C. EVANGELINE. "Devices for Teaching Oral French," 2 : 203–214.

FEINGOLD, GUSTAVE A. "Measuring the Results of a Modern Language Examination," 3 : 14–20. (A study of 250 first-year high-school French papers. Suggestive.)

FITZ-GERALD, JOHN D. "National Aspects of Modern Language Teaching in the Present Emergency," 3 : 49–62. (Emphasis on value of French and Spanish in our schools during the war period.)

GRONOW, ANNA T. "German in the University Elementary School, Chicago, Illinois," 3 : 100–106. (Account of this teaching in the fourth to seventh grades. Emphasis on the emotional and idealistic values.)

HANDSCHIN, C. H. "A Test for Discovering Types of Learners in Language Study," 3 : 1–4. (Address the United States Bureau of Education for copies.)

HEUSER, FREDERICK W. J. "Nineteenth Century German Literature for Undergraduates," 2 : 239–247. (Objects to the German *Aufsatz* as demanded of students in literary courses, and advises having these essays written in English instead.)

Jameson, R. P. "Le Cercle Français," 2 : 321–331. (Useful article with lists of terms and expressions to be used in conducting the meetings in French.)

Johnston, Oliver M. "University Training of the High School Teacher of Modern Foreign Languages, with Particular Reference to French," 3 : 95–99. (Treats of teaching pronunciation, composition, literature, etc.)

Krause, Carl A. "The Present Status of German in France," 3 : 63–66. (Discusses the question whether there was a decrease of numbers studying German in France during the War. Lack of statistical data prevented conclusion.)

Lipsky, Abram. "A Few Neglected Platitudes on Modern Language Examination," 3 : 75–79. (Invective against present method of scoring school examinations.)

McKenzie, Kenneth. "Manuals of French with Reference to Overseas Service," 2 : 275–283. (Seeks to evaluate such manuals; finds many of them of little value.)

Mersereau, Edward B. "The Positive Element in the Correction of Written Work," 3 : 80–83. (The correct forms should be made more of than the incorrect ones in correcting examination papers.)

Moreno-Lacalle, J. "The Teaching of Spanish Pronunciation," 2 : 304–320. (A very useful guide for teachers.)

Myers, Walter. "Elementary Language Training as Art Training," 2 : 293–303. (In language as in art, skill is dependent on imitation, practice, and criticism. Suggestive.)

Sachs, Julius. "Desirability of a Syllabus in French and German Texts," 2 : 139–149. (Wishes to see in such syllabi books which shall lay more stress on content and power to arouse interest than on style. The syllabi should also suggest the proper sequence for the texts.)

Schmidt, Lydia M. "The Course in German in the University High School, Chicago, Illinois," 3 : 107–116. (Detailed outlines of the four-year high-school course.)

Spink, Josette E. "French in Pre-High School Period," 2 : 157–169. (Outlines of work between fourth and seventh grades in the Elementary School of the University of Chicago.)

Van Horne, John. "Spanish Texts and the Spanish Language," 2 : 170–176. (Large amounts of simple narrative should be used in the early stages. There is still lack of such material in American editions.)

Whitney, Marion P. "National Ideals and the Teaching of Modern Languages," 3:5–13. (A plea for more and better teaching of modern languages in the spirit of good Americanism.)

Monatshefte für Deutsche Sprache und Pädagogik

Betz, F. "First Year Work in German — Some Experiences," 19:62–73. (Useful hints.)

Cutting, Starr Willard. "Modern Languages in the General Scheme of American Education," 19:25–34. (Résumé of historical development. Lays stress, for our needs of today, on beginning this study early in the grades.)

Deihl, J. D. "Adjusting Instruction in German to Conditions Imposed by the War," 19:128–134. (An appeal to the patriotism of teachers of German.)

—— "Reading," 19:249–256. (Reading the center of our instruction in modern languages.)

Jenny, Florence G. "A Survey of the Preparation of Teachers of German in the High Schools of the United States," 19:121–127, 146–155. (Information as to their training was received from 1464 teachers in various parts of the United States.)

Roedder, Edwin C. "Der gegenwärtige Stand des deutschen Unterrichts in den Colleges und Universitäten der Vereinigten Staaten," 19:260–263. (Statistics for the year 1918–1919.)

Spanhoofd, E. "The Practical Study of Phonetics," 19:299–334, 256–259. (Teachers should be trained in technical phonetics, but the scientific aspects should be omitted in teaching pronunciation in the schools.)

Stroebe, L. L. "Der deutsche Unterricht und die deutsche Kunst," 19:154–159, 172–182. (Emphasis on the value of the use of reproductions of works of art in the classroom.)

Tupper, Frederick. "The Awful German Language," 19:193–198. (A brief for the study of German in the schools.)

The Educational Review

Churchman, Philip H. "Learning by Teaching," 55:65–70. (Discussion of student-teaching as used in teacher-training courses.)

Gordy, H. Miles. "The German Language in Our Schools," 56:257–263. (Invective against the teaching of German.)

Mantz, Harold Elmer. "Modern Languages and Literatures in Universities," 56 : 385–398. (Proposes that departments of modern language in universities be divided into one department of teaching and one of research.)

Moore, Frank G. "Haste and Waste in Translating Latin," 55 : 417–426. (Of value also to the teacher of modern languages.)

Swiggett, Glen Levin. "Training for Foreign Service," 55 : 271–283. (Calls attention to the opportunities in consular service, etc., for those trained in modern languages.)

Weiss, Alma Joachimson. "Music via Modern Languages," 55 : 345–348.

The School Review

Davies, C. O. "Junior High Schools in the North Central Association Territory, 1917–1918," 26 : 324–336. (Modern languages are taught in 27.30 per cent of the junior high schools in this territory (293 schools), with elections distributed rather evenly among the three languages.)

Hall-Quest, Alfred. "How to Introduce Supervised Study," 26 : 337–340. (Of interest to modern-language teachers.)

Lewis, E. E. "Foreign Languages and Mathematics as Requirements for Admission to, and Graduation from, American Colleges and Universities," 26 : 1–5. (Statistics concerning thirty-five leading colleges (1896–1916) show a tendency to waive specific requirements in foreign languages and mathematics.)

Schmidt, Lydia M. "Recent Textbooks in Secondary School German," 26 : 137–144. (This survey of texts indicates that the direct method is gaining.)

Education (Boston)

Herzberg, Max J. "As to Modern Languages," 39 : 112–115. (Slight survey and outline of *Report of the Committee on the Position of Modern Languages in the Educational System of Great Britain*, London : 1918.)

Mitchell, Howard. "Supervised Study in Modern Languages," 38 : 385–387. (Calls attention to the advantages.)

Nutting, H. C. "Experimental Test of Educational Values,"

38 : 460–466. (Asserts that much experimentation is necessary before valid tests of ability in foreign languages are possible.)

Todd, T. W. "German in Our Public Schools," 38 : 531–535. (Brief for the retention of German.)

School and Society

Collins, James V. "Language Reform and Education," 8 : 331–337. (Deals with spelling reform of English.)

Davidson, Percy E. "Concerning Mental Discipline and Educational Reform," 7 : 1–8. (Modern language must demonstrate and delimit its specific values as a school subject, in order to hold its place.)

Davis, Calvin O. "The Continuity of Students' Work in High School and University, and the Extent of Concentration and Dispersion of Effort within the University," Vol. 8 : 57–60. (Modern language is shown to excel other subjects of the curricula as to continuity of effort and specialization on part of students.)

Hauch, Edward Franklin. "A Few Popular Misconceptions in Regard to Language Study," 7 : 277–284. (The teaching of modern languages for economic and social reasons.)

Hoskins, John Preston. "Modern Language Instruction after the War," 8 : 601–612. (Modern languages more necessary after the war, and the need must be met.)

MacElmee, R. S. "Education for Foreign Trade and Shipping in High Schools," 8 : 612–616. (French, he thinks, should be the foundation for this, and it should be taught as a spoken language.)

Mercier, Charles. "Education and the Acquisition of Languages," 8 : 351–352. (Language deafness is a rather common phenomenon, and facility in language a special faculty. Language instruction should be limited to those endowed to profit by it.)

Swiggett, Glen Levin. "Why Should the Government Train for Foreign Service?" 8 : 181–187. (Discussion of preparation of students for commercial work, and of modern language as one of the required subjects for this purpose.)

Ullman, B. L. "Latin in Place of German," 8 : 337–341. (Latin the only proper substitute for German. Deplores the elimination of German, and fears serious results for all study of languages, since registrations in language have fallen off badly.)

Weiss, Alma. "The German Woman's Struggle for Higher Education," 7 : 161–165. (Interesting historical résumé.)

Hispania

Allen, Matilda. "How I Teach First Year Spanish," 1 : 86–88. (Procedures for teaching first-year Spanish.)

Coëster, Alfred. "Periodicals in Spanish Available for the Classroom," 1 : 26–30. (Bibliography of American and European periodicals, with notes.)

Day, Isabella M. "Devices and Accessory Aids in the First Year of Spanish," 1 : 229–234. (Useful, and grown out of personal experience.)

Dowling, Margaret C. "The Organization of High School Work in Spanish," 1 : 19–25. (Basing on experience, advises a program, granting some leeway as best for practical needs.)

Firnandez, Gracia L. "Club Work in the Elementary Year in High School," 1 : 235–239. (Useful helps.)

Kelley, Catherine C. "Creating a Spanish Atmosphere in the Classroom," 1 : 240–242. (Stress on its value; means of creating the atmosphere.)

McCarthy, G. F. "Spanish the Language for After-War Business Men," 1 : 99–101. (Attempts to demonstrate the practical benefits of the study of Spanish.)

Mercado, J. "Rubén Dario," 1 : 38–42. (Literary sketch.)

Owen, Olmsted, and Fitz-Gerald. "First-Year Course in College Spanish," 1 : 31–37. (Syllabus.)

Pidal, R. Menendez. "La Lengua Española," 1 : 1–14. (There are greater differences in language between the various parts of Spain than between the Andalusian and the dialects of South America. The Castilian is the dialect which has achieved greatest prominence, especially in America, and should serve as the common medium for our purpose. Linguistic and literary sketch of value.)

Wilkins, Lawrence A. "Spanish as a Substitute for German for Training and Culture," 1 : 205–221. (Brief for Spanish. Polemic vs. German.)

Wilson, Ruth. "Notes on Club Work in Elementary Year," 1 : 222–228. (Relates to use of *realia* and helps in Spanish club activities. Useful.)

This volume also contains a report of the first annual meeting of the American Association of Teachers of Spanish (1 : 15–18); the constitution of the association (pages 43–45); a reprint of the Modern Language Association of America syllabus for a four-year Spanish course for secondary schools or a two-year course in college (pages 103–107); and bibliographies and reviews.

Bulletin of the New England Modern Language Association

Downer, Charles A. "High-Pressure Methods of Teaching French to Soldiers," 8 : 3–15. (Stress on restricting and delimiting the amounts taught.)

Luquiens, Frederick Bliss. "Spanish as a College Substitute for French or German," 8 : 18–22. (Brief for Spanish as a subject of college study.)

Stroebe, Lilian L. "The Summer Schools as a War-Time Substitute for Study Abroad," 8 : 23–42. (Calls attention to the value of such schools and to the necessity at such of isolation, concentration, and coördination of effort.)

Bulletin of the High School Teachers' Association of New York City

Canfield, Dorothy. "Observations on French Schools," No. 68 : 1–12 (January). (Brings out some lessons which we may learn from them; viz., to avoid over-organization, waste, etc.)

Denbigh, John H. "The Schools in War Time and Afterwards," No. 69 : 1–13 (June). (Stress upon the value of foreign languages in the schools.)

Talbot, Winthrop. "The Imperial Plan in German Schooling," No. 68 : 13–20. (Interesting exposition.)

Bulletin of the Wisconsin Association of Modern Foreign Language Teachers (Madison)

Johnson, Laura B. "The Use of Translation in a High School Modern Language Course," No. 8 : 2–3 (February). (Believes in translation in moderation.)

Kenngott, A. "The Abuse of Translation in Modern Language Instruction," No. 8 : 3–4. (Counsels against the use of translation because inhibiting the formation of a feeling for the language.)

Bulletin of High Points (Board of Education, New York City)

Sherwell, Guillermo A. "Differences between Spanish and Spanish-American Usages in Language and Pronunciation," 2:7–13. (Useful. Advises teaching the Castilian pronunciation.)

Wendell, Mary G. "Foreign Language Values: Helping the Pupil to See Them," 2:21–24. (Follows customary lines of argumentation.)

Wilkins, Lawrence A. "Concerning Memory Work; with a Notable Speech in French to be Memorized," 2:1–4, January. (Notes on nature of memory work.)

—— "Concerning Translation," 2:1–4, November. (Avoid it at the outset and eventually make it unnecessary.)

—— "Interest as a Factor in Language Work," 2:1–5, October. (Stress on well-known value of interest as a starting point for work.)

—— "Pedagogics and Culture," 2:1–4, March. (Conventional point of departure.)

—— "Spanish Pronunciation," 2:4–15, June. (Gives hints; discusses "practical" phonetics and how to teach it.)

—— "The American and the Foreign Teacher of Foreign Languages," 2: 1–4, February. (Desires to see both kinds employed.)

—— "Wastage in Modern Language Instruction," 2:1–6, April. (Discusses the high percentage of failures.)

—— "Why Teach German in High Schools?" 2: 1–7, May. (Polemic vs. German.)

University of Illinois Bulletin

Fitz-Gerald, John D. "Report of the Interlocking Committee on the Coördination of Language Study in the High Schools of the State of Illinois," Vol. 16, No. 12:40–49.

Greerson, W. A. "Coördination of the Teaching of Foreign Languages and of English in the High Schools," Vol. 16, No. 12:52–57. (Discusses only Latin and English.)

Owen, W. B. "The Place of German in our High Schools after the War," Vol. 16, No. 12:235–237. (Believes it very unwise to eliminate German, but wishes "propaganda" to cease. We need German to know what is going on in "modern thought.")

Moore, Olin H. "The Place of Italian in the High School," Vol. 12 : 238–242. (Advocates teaching of Italian for practical linguistic and literary values.)

Scandinavian Studies and Notes

Gould, Chester N. "The Teaching of Foreign Languages in the Grades," 5 : 30–32. (Against teaching Scandinavian in the grades below the high school, because the pupils need other things, especially English, more. Excellent discussion.)

Michalet, Maren, Erickson, Victor, and a Committee of Eight. "Courses of Study in Scandinavian," 5 : 33–40. (Syllabi giving amounts and texts are given for three years of Norse and four years of Swedish. Very useful.)

The Modern Language Bulletin of Philadelphia

Cole, Anna Lewis. "Classroom Helps," Vol. 1, No. 2 : 8–9. (Lists of books in English dealing with French history.)

Hudson, Margaret. "Vocabulary Building in French," Vol. 1, No. 2 : 4–7. (Useful hints.)

Reibstein, Benjamin. "Classroom Helps," Vol. 1, No. 1 : 7–8 (not numbered). (Discussion of the Spanish subjunctive mode.)

Bulletin de la Maison Française de Columbia University

Cestre, Charles. "Living Criticism," Vol. 1, No. 4 : 25–28 (July-October). (Gives a scheme for commentating a literary text as used prevalently in France. Useful.)

Wendell, Barrett. "What the French Language Teaches Us," Vol. 1, No. 5 : 33–35 (November-December). (Stress on "living humanism.")

VARIOUS JOURNALS

Burr, A. W. "In Place of German, What?" *The Wisconsin Journal of Education*, Vol. 50, No. 2 : 45. (Latin, if taught so as to yield "practical" results.)

Downer, Charles A. "Italian as a Universal Language," *Italy Today* (New York), Vol. 1, No. 2 : 3–5 (September 15). (Believes in Italian as a high school and college study for the sake

of the euphony of the language and the simplicity of its phonetics.)

O'Shea, M. V. "The Teaching of German," *The Wisconsin Journal of Education*, Vol. 50, No. 7 : 184–187. (Discussion of the values of German as a school study. Considers it highly unwise to eliminate German.)

Painter, George S. "The Problem of Language Study," *Classical Journal*, 13 : 629–643. (Would counsel that Latin and German above all languages should be required of high-school students.)

Waxman, Samuel M. "After Spanish, What?" *Bostonia*, 19 : 33–40. (The author has given practically the same ideas under the title "Jeremiad on Modern Language Teaching." See *Modern Language Journal* under 1917.)

Wilkins, Ernest H. "The Place of Italian in the American Educational System," *Il Carroccio* (New York), Vol. 8, No. 3 : 221–223 (September). (Brief for Italian "in the name of wisdom and in the name of loyalty.")

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BOOKS AND PAMPHLETS

Alexander, H. B.. *Letters to Teachers.* Open Court Publishing Company, La Salle, Illinois. (Pages 169–189 are devoted to foreign-language study.)

Peers, E. Allison. *French Accuracy Notebook.* J. M. Dent & Co., London; 1919.

Thompson, Alexander. *History of German in the Cincinnati Public Schools.* Cincinnati; 1919. 12 pages. (A paper read before the Literary Club of Cincinnati in 1918.)

PERIODICALS

The Modern Language Journal

Aron, A. W. "Relative Accomplishments of Beginners in German in High School and College," 3 : 246–250. (Shows by statistics (176 students involved) of college students' grades, part of which had received their antecedent training in college, part in high school, that the rule of counting two years of high school work in modern language as equal to one year of college work is quite correct.)

Ballard, A. W. "The Teaching of French Pronunciation by the Use of Phonetic Symbols," 3 : 325–330. (A brief for this procedure, with suggestions for exercises.)

Bovée, A. G. "Teaching Vocabulary by the Direct Method," 4 : 63–72. (Methods of conveying meanings without the use of the English are given with more detail than usually. Useful for persons learning to use direct method.)

Bovée, A. G., and others. "French Course of Study" (in elementary and high school), 3 : 193–213, 251–276, 300–324, 368–376. (Gives an account of four years of work in the Elementary School and two in the High School of the University of Chicago, with excellent discussions and detailed outlines of aims, procedures, and materials.)

Churchman, P. H. "Further Notes on French Pronunciation," 3 : 361–367. (Suggestions for procedures in teaching French pronunciation.)

Cutting, S. W., and others. "The Outlook for German," 4 : 24–28. (Have we done better in excluding German from our schools than England and France, who have increased the attention to it during the war? The danger lies in that the exclusion will continue unless combated. Miss Ohrenstein gave statistics of registration in German in Hyde Park High School, Chicago, 1914–1918, showing the decrease. But that in spite of difficulties some pupils persisted, speaks for the value of German, which is easier than French and possesses an important literature. Dr. Judd believes that the war caused merely a recoil against political meddling with courses of study and against bad teaching and that with these eliminated, German will return to the curriculum. Dr. Lewis showed that the war hatred of German will not persist, that business will insist on the teaching of German, and that the language is the easiest for the American to acquire. For trade, German will be more important in the future than in the past.)

Fahnestock, E. "An Experiment in Teaching Spanish," 4 : 29–34. (An account of classes in Spanish in Vassar College which were taught partly by American and partly by Spanish teachers, the American taking the class two days, the Spaniard one. The American taught the grammar and translating work, the foreigner, the oral.)

Fife, R. H. "A Federation of Modern Language Teachers," 3 : 287–289. (Tells of the founding and plans of the National Federation of Modern Language Teachers. There follows on pages 290–291 the proposed constitution of the Federation which was subsequently adopted with only two very unimportant changes.)

Froeligher, F. M. "Speaking vs. Reading : A Critical Discussion of the Chicago Plan of Teaching French," 4 : 55–62. (See above under Bovée, A. G., and others.)

Hamann, F. A. "Phonetics as a Basis for Teaching Spanish," 4 : 123–131. (Discussion and exposition.)

Handschin, C. H. "Individual Differences, and Supervised Study," 3 : 158–174. (For contents see Chapter XII of this book.)

Hills, E. C. "Has the War Proved that Our Methods of Teaching Modern Languages in Colleges are Wrong? A Symposium," 4 : 1–13. (The opinions of twenty-one professors of Romance languages agree in so far as they answer that the methods were not wrong but that there may well be more emphasis on oral ability for those who intend to learn to speak. President N. M. Butler, who has attacked the methods used, is, they say, at fault in his demands and lacks understanding of the problem.)

Krause, C. A. "A Few Suggestions for First-Year Spanish and French," 3 : 292–300. (Useful comparisons between pronunciation, vocabulary, inflection, idioms, syntax of French and Spanish. Also the "sliding synopsis" applied to French and Spanish. A contribution to the comparative study of the two languages.)

Moore, O. J. "Italian in the High Schools," 3 : 237–246. (Brief for Italian and enthusiastic advocacy of its claims to be recognized.)

Oliver, T. E. "The National Peabody Foundation for International Correspondence," 4 : 73–76. (Explains fully the plan for this correspondence and the details of administration.)

Pierce, F. W. "The German Adjective and the Use of *Umlaut* in Its Comparison," 3 : 213–218. (Shows that grammars commonly state that most monosyllabic adjectives with "a," "o," "u" in the stem take *Umlaut*. He shows that more do not.)

Russell, O. G. "The Pronunciation of Spanish *R*," 3 : 174–185. (Useful contribution to phonetics.)

SCHINZ, A. "Selection of Reading Texts as Viewed from Abroad," 4 : 114–122. (Some unwise tendencies which we are beginning to remedy: the use of classic texts in elementary classes; the use of poorly written and slangy texts. We are, however, still reading *too much*. In literary courses we should read the best. We should not read a book if it must be emasculated, although we should avoid risqué material also.)

VAN HORNE, J. "Reading Material Used in College during the Past Five Years in First- and Second-Year French Classes," 3 : 143–158.

—— "Reading Texts Used during the Past Five Years in First- and Second-Year College Spanish," 3 : 218–231. (Tabulations of texts and amounts read, and of number of times each text was used in considerable numbers of colleges. Valuable.)

WARSHAW, J. "The Utility of Teaching Devices," 4 : 105–113, 155–170. (Insists on the value of devices and systematic use of the same. Gives a long list of such for teaching Spanish. Very useful.)

WEIGEL, J. C. "The Acquisition of a Vocabulary," 3 : 339–360. (Discussion of types of vocabulary and of the reasons why the mother tongue should be almost banished from the elementary instruction in modern language. Considerations as to size of elementary vocabulary. Advocacy of oral instruction and oral reproduction in this stage. Methods of reviewing vocabulary profitably, and of developing texts.)

The Educational Review

ARNOLD, FRANK R. "France as Well as French," 57 : 242–246. (Dwells on the demand for teachers of French. Gives a résumé of some good books in French.)

GOBLOT, G. "Language Teaching in Germany," 57 : 269–270. (Cites arguments used by German writers in favor of continuing the study of French and English in German schools.)

MERCIER, LOUIS J. A. "Teaching to Speak French in College," 57 : 43–59.

WARD, C. F. "Modern Language Teaching," 57 : 321–335. (A discussion of the British Report on Modern Languages.)

WILKINS, LAWRENCE A. "The War and World Languages," 58 : 289–302. (Says that the German language is under "an

eclipse that will continue; English is in the ascendancy, and French increasing. Spanish is rapidly being reinstated as one of the world languages.")

Education (Boston)

Foster, J. E. "The Effect of the War on Secondary Schools," 40 : 251. (Statistics as to dropping of German and substitution of French and Spanish therefor in Iowa high schools.)

Stroebe, Lilian L. "Organization and Management of Summer Schools for Modern Languages," 39 : 305–316, 356–366. (Cf. this writer's article in the *Publications of the New England Modern Language Association* under 1917.)

—— "The Background of the Modern Language Teacher," 39 : 573–579. (Suggestions concerning studying the *realia* of foreign countries.)

Hispania

Andrade, Manuel J. "Distinction between *Ser* and *Estar*," 2 : 19–23. (The basis of distinction, as I feel it, is that *estar* is associated with the characteristic feelings which attend immediate perceptions and their representations, while *ser* is likewise related to concepts and judgments.)

Barlow, W. A. "Grammar, How Much and How, in Elementary Year of High School," 2 : 24–28. (Importance of grammar. Drill devices.)

Barnes, A. J. "The First Foreign Language in Our Secondary Schools," 2 : 298–302. (Latin was formerly the first foreign language, but that is past. The best approach to foreign language is a modern tongue, and Spanish among the modern foreign languages has the first claim on us for reasons of propinquity of South America.)

Branner, John Casper. "Importance of the Study of the Portuguese Language," 2 : 87–93. (Brazil has over one half of the population and foreign trade of South America and one half of the area. The Portuguese of Brazil is the same practically as that of Portugal. Brazil has a great future.)

Brovedani, J. H. "Las Universidades Españolas," 2 : 12–18. (Notes on the past and present of the Spanish universities.)

Castillejo, José. "Intellectual Relations between Spain and the United States," 2 : 242–248. (Plans for interchange of students and professors between Spain and the United States under the care of the Junta para Ampliación de Estudios of Madrid.)

COESTER, ALFRED. "Some Impressions of South America," 2 : 1–11. (English influence in South American business. Italian experiences. Linguistic notes. Growing Italian population in Argentina, which is becoming an Italian country and speaks a variety of Spanish. Importance of labeling goods in Spanish.)

DORADO, C. MARCIAL. "Lecturas adecuadas para el primer año," 2 : 254–259.

—— "Una Española en California," 2 : 286–290. (Notes on a stay in California.)

FITZ-GERALD, JOHN D. "The Junior High School," 2 : 82–87. (Advises that Spanish be made the junior high school language on supervised-study plan. Program outlined is predominantly linguistic: Spanish, English, and mathematics for these three years of the junior high school.)

—— "The Position of Spanish in the Curricula of the High Schools," 2 : 119–148. (Proposes program for junior and senior high schools with Spanish as first language.)

HILL, JOHN M. "Translation vs. Oral Practice," 2 : 249–253. (Statistics from 161 college students (Indiana University) which show that 50 per cent prefer translation to oral work, 70 per cent wish both, 56 per cent study Spanish for utilitarian purposes, others for scattering reasons.)

HILLS, E. C. "Some Spanish-American Novels," 2 : 49–51. (List of best Spanish-American novels given.)

LEADINGHAM, GRACE. "How I Teach Spanish Pronunciation," 2 : 260–262. (Devices.)

LEAL, A. C. "Amado Nervo," 2 : 265–267. (Notes.)

MORSE, E. L. C. "A Course of Study in Spanish for High Schools," 2 : 174–179. (The work of a committee. Outlines in detail. Useful.)

OAKLEY, EDNA. "Vitalizing the Teaching of Spanish," 2 : 291–297. (Motivation must be worked out by means of contacts with life. Some possible contacts are mentioned.)

ODELL, MABEL. "An Everyday Spanish Vocabulary," 2 : 263–264. (Uses games for increasing vocabulary.)

OWEN, ARTHUR L. "Spoken Spanish in the University," 2 : 236–241. (Methods discussed, and an eclectic system advised, with considerable emphasis on conversation.)

Schevill, Rudolph. "La Sociedad de Menendez y Pelayo," 2 : 308–311. (Notes on its activity and the opportunity it offers students of Spanish history and literature.)

Snyder, Helen D. "Evolution of a Teacher of Spanish," 2 : 303–307. (Interesting personal experience in learning and teaching.)

Umphrey, George W. "South American Poets of Today and Yesterday: I — Dario," 2 : 64–81. (Concerning Rubén Dario.)

Warshaw, J. "The Spanish Program," 2 : 223–235. (An outline of the propaganda necessary to educate the United States up to an understanding of the value of Spanish and a knowledge of Spanish things.)

Waxman, S. M., et al. "Report of Committee on Admissions and Correlations," 2 : 94–99. (Asks equality for Spanish with French and German as to entrance units and credits for graduation from college. Outlines for courses in Spanish. Necessity of improving the teachers of Spanish and some plans in this direction.)

Yanes, Francisco A. "Los Estados Unidos y Países de Habla Española," 2 : 55–63. (Importance of knowledge of Spanish for trade. Historical notes on Pan-American Union. Emphasis on necessity of Spanish studies in United States.)

Vol. 2 also contains the report of the second annual meeting of the American Association of Teachers of Spanish, reports of the secretary and committees, a report on *Hispania* by its editor, a report of a committee on scholarships in Spanish countries, and on *El Primer Congreso Internacional de Hispanistas;* also bibliographies and reviews.

Scandinavian Studies and Notes

Michelet, Maren. "Modern Language Study," 5 : 246–247. (Thoughts on its value.)

— "Report" (on the study of Scandinavian), 5 : 247–248. (Scandinavian has felt the wave of resentment against modern-language study engendered by the war and no new advances were made.)

Journal of Education (Boston)

Doyle, H. G. "Modern Language Items," 89 : 497, 634; 90 : 41, 158, 370, 540, 637. (Propaganda for Spanish. Various data.)

—— "The Course in Spanish," 91 : 34–35. (Methods and aims, and outlines for secondary-school course, also a course for four years in high school and two years in college.)

Eno, J. N. "The Study of Language in Our Public Schools," 89 : 207–208. (Language being superseded by practical subjects. Reconsideration of the subject necessary.)

Goggio, Emilio. "The Importance and Value of Foreign Languages," 90 : 541. (Arguments in favor of language study.)

Grummann, Paul H. "Cultural Values in Modern Language Instruction," 89 : 564–566.

VARIOUS JOURNALS

Barrell, Joseph. "The Place of Modern Languages in Research, Particularly in Geological Research," *Scientific Monthly*, 8 : 481–495. (A study based on a questionnaire sent to members of the Geological Society of America, to test the value of modern languages in geological research. Important.)

Claxton, P. P. "The Need for Modern Languages in Our Schools," Bulletin of the New York State Modern Language Association (Eleventh Annual Meeting, Albany, 1919), pages 13–15.

Forres, Arturo. "Teaching Spanish in New York City Schools," Bulletin of the Pan-American Union, 49 : 656–659. (Statistics and report of progress.)

Jenney, Florence G. "Shall Americans Study German?" *Oberlin Alumni Magazine*, 15 : 143–148. (Says that when the practical disadvantages of not knowing German become embarrassing enough, we shall study German again.)

Marchant, L. "Teaching Portuguese in the United States," 48 : 172–176. Bulletin of the Pan-American Union. (Presents the importance, with reference to our relations with Brazil, of teaching the Portuguese language and Brazilian geography, history, and economics in American schools.)

Morris, J. "The Teaching of Modern Languages," *High School Quarterly* (New York City), 7 : 246–651.

Seybolt, R. F. "The Teaching of French in the Colonial New York," *The Romanic Review*, 10 : 364–376. (Historical notes.)

"The Study of Languages," *The Pennsylvania Gazette*, 18 : 12–13.

Warshaw, J. "Why Spanish?" *School and Society*, 9 : 408–413. (Brief for Spanish as compared with the other modern foreign languages.)

Wilkins, E. H. "Italian and Spanish in American Education," Bulletin of the New England Modern Language Association, IX, May, 1919. (Statistics of enrollments in French, Italian, and Spanish in the United States. Deplores slight registration in Italian. Students should be advised to elect Italian in place of Spanish. It is well to study Spanish for commercial reasons but only in commercial courses.)

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BOOKS AND PAMPHLETS

Resolutions Concerning Teaching of Modern Languages. Teacher's Leaflet No. 14, August, 1920. U. S. Bureau of Education. 4 pages.

Yanes, F. J. *The Report of the Section of Education of the Pan-American Union.* Washington, D. C.; 1921. 8 pages. (Report on *realia* of South America obtained and loaned out to schools and societies. Report of many school activities and institutions *in re* Spanish studies. Report of the help given by the Section to American students who wished to prosecute their studies in Hispanic America and to South Americans in this country, and of other similar activities of the Section.)

PERIODICALS

The Modern Language Journal

Arnold, F. R. "Ambassadors of France," 5 : 309–316. (Every teacher of French should be an ambassador of France to his pupils and interpret the greatness of France to them in all he does and says. Many illustrations.)

Ballard, A. W. "The Use of Phonetic Symbols in Teaching French Pronunciation," 5 : 134–138. (Brief for use of the phonetic symbols and outlines for elementary teaching.)

Benedict, M. H. "Why My Children Speak Spanish," 4 : 280–287. ("Because I practice it naturally with them, do not bore them with it, use Spanish games, read Spanish books," etc.)

Bronk, Isabelle. "Attainable Aims in Modern Language Teaching in Colleges, or What May We Safely Hope to Accomplish in Modern Language Courses in Colleges?" 5:179–185. (Decent pronunciation, enrichment of knowledge of English grammar, discipline, reading, speaking, and understanding of the foreign language, and training of good teachers are attainable aims.)

Buffum, D. L. "The Aims of Modern Language Teaching: A Few Suggestions," 5:71–76. (To teach a student to *understand* the foreign language is comparatively easy and should be done even in the schools by using only the foreign language in the classes. In this way, the better students will also learn to speak it.)

Castillo, C. "A First Course in Spanish Conversation in College," 4:331–335. (Devices and a general program laid down and materials suggested.)

Church, H. W. "Teaching the French Verb," 5:249–255. (Suggestions as to simplifying the teaching and learning of the French verb. A table is given for this purpose, which is worth studying.)

Cline, E. C. "A Theory and a Foreign Language Course," 5:435–443. (Account of a semester course in general linguistics on basis of Latin to sift out the incapables in language study, and a theoretical outline of a two- or four-year course in French to follow. No account of actual procedures in the one-semester course is given.)

Denbigh, J. H. "Foreign Languages in American Schools," 5:237–248. (There is waste in teaching modern languages which should be eliminated. We need, therefore, better delimited aims, care in selecting pupils for the more thoroughgoing training, by tests, etc., care in selecting proper reading material and *realia*, and better care in the preparation of teachers, who should be American-born as a rule.)

Escher, Erwin. "The 'Invention' of the Natural Method of Language Teaching," 4:295–301. (The natural method was not "invented" by Heness, but by Victor Duruy in 1863.)

Fife, R. H. "On Teaching of German," 5:18–27. (German is important for scientific purposes and for commercial reasons throughout eastern Europe. The new Germany is not the old Germany, and Americans need to study the language. Three Nobel prizes went to Germany even in the year of the Peace Treaty. But whatever of modern language is taught must be practical.)

Fitz-Gerald, John D., and Nonnez, A. "Syllabus for High School Spanish," 5 : 77–86. (Goes into procedures as well as outlining work and materials. The most valuable of the syllabi for Spanish. See Appendix Two for complete reprint.)

Greenleaf, J. H. "Le [ɲ] Français ou 'n Mouillé,'" 5 : 365–369. (Phonetics of *n Mouillé.*)

Handschin, C. H. "Tests and Measurements in Modern Language Work," 4 : 217–225. (Résumé of scientific experimentation in modern-language work and its results. Report on progress in test-making for modern languages, with samples of tests.)

Hathaway, Joel. "The Boston Authorized List of Modern Language Textbooks," 5 : 336–340. (The criterions for judging a book are: physical make-up, cost, content, general suitability — i.e., it must contain no objectionable views — and accuracy. Three committees review books in succession before it is placed on the authorized list.)

Hauch, E. F. "On the Immortality of Examination Pests," 5 : 63–70. (Invective against unwise aims in examinations with good suggestions as to proper aims, which largely are the conventional ones.)

Hayden, P. M. "Experience with Oral Examinations in Modern Languages," 5 : 87–92. (Record of experience in examining candidates for the position of court interpreters. Endorses the idea of oral and other examinations.)

Hemry, F. S. "Attainable Aims in Modern Language Teaching in the Preparatory Schools," 5 : 121–128. (Pronunciation, grammar, translation in the first year; renewed grammar and translation in the second; seventy-five pages of reading the first, two hundred the second. In the third year, something of geography, history, government, and literature. Should not the rather excessive demands of the College Entrance Examination Board be revised?)

Heuser, F. J. "Regents' Examinations in German," 5 : 186–199. (Traces the changes made in these examinations since 1919, which, he says, show progress in teaching. Comments on the value of these examination papers to teachers, and criticizes the papers themselves.)

Hills, E. C. "Our Threefold Needs," 5 : 12–17. (Continuation of the article printed in the *Modern Language Journal* in

October, 1919. The upshot is: "The basic needs are threefold: competent and enthusiastic teachers, small classes, sufficient time. With these three, all things are possible.")

Holbrook, R. T. "Que veut dire 'Savoir le Français'?" 5:411–422. (Gives a definition of "French." Different ways of knowing modern French are: skill in translating, understanding, writing, speaking French; by acquaintance with French *realia;* through grammatical analysis, and a study of French lexicology.)

Jameson, R. P. "Club and Extra-Class Activities," 4:265–279. (Detailed plans for organization and lists of devices and useful activities.)

Jente, R. "Modern Language Enrollment in Universities and Colleges," 5:380–385. (Statistics for French, German, and Spanish, 1914–1920.)

Keniston, H. "The Study of Grammar in the Second-Year Spanish," 5:129–133. (Grammar is and should be the tool *par excellence* for teaching thinking. There are two types of grammars: one treats a phenomenon fully at once, the other treats of it only partially for beginners at first and more fully later. Use of text or composition book for grammar review. The chief business is to teach students to think.)

Limper, L. H. "The Use of Outlines and Other Devices in the Teaching of French Grammar," 5:102–106. (Gives several useful schemes for teaching pronouns and "if" clauses.)

Mann, Albert, Jr. "On Teaching the Subjunctive Mood in French," 4:171–177. (The principal ideas, attitudes, and feelings which are expressed by the subjunctive are: doubt, will, favorable or unfavorable judgment, and emotion. Cases of each given. Useful.)

Mohr, W. "An Experiment in Correspondence," 4:387–396. (Interesting account of experiences in conducting international correspondence with French pupils.)

Ogden, R. M. "The Future of Modern Language in the High School," 5:253–364. (If languages are not taught well in high schools, the college will withdraw its support of them. Modern languages have lost popularity through the war. The first value of these languages is as a tool, but this value has been overestimated. The disciplinary value is more important, although this has not been so much stressed. The importance

of linguistic training for thinking. The methods of teaching modern languages are better standardized than those of any other subject, with the possible exception of mathematics. This is a strong point in their favor.)

Price, W. R. "Results of the Examinations for Approval for Oral Credit; the Licensing of Teachers of Modern Languages," 4 : 345–347. (Explains the plans for this and gives statistics concerning numbers of teachers passed in the examinations.)

Purin, C. M. "The Importance of Foreign Language Instruction in the General Scheme of American Education," 4 : 325–330. (Excellent résumé of the outstanding reasons commonly advanced for this study. Mental discipline, culture, practical good. Also discusses question when these languages should be begun; viz., in the junior high school.)

Schinz, A. "Newspapers and Periodicals in France: Hints to Subscribers," 5 : 139–145. (Gives lists of daily papers, monthly, bimonthly periodicals, weeklies, and miscellaneous periodicals, with notes as to contents and tendencies of each, for the guidance of subscribers.)

Schoell, F. L. "L'Évolution récente des universités françaises," 5 : 28–37. (Account of recent innovations in democratizing the French universities; movement to retain a high-class staff of professors and to differentiate the work of universities according to local needs. Also the great efforts made to attract and hold foreign students, especially English and Americans.)

Schwartz, W. L. "Syllabication in French and Suggestions for Accenting the Letter *E*," 5 : 374–377. (Useful hints for teachers of beginners.)

Stewart, Morton. "The Present Status of German Instruction in Colleges and in the Secondary Schools of New York," 5 : 378–380. (Valuable statistics for the years 1914–1920.)

Stocker, Clara. "French Speech Tunes and the Phonograph," 5 : 267–270. (Emphasis on the value of the phonograph.)

—— "Notes on the Intonation of Spoken French," 4 : 229–235. (Emphasis on the value of the phonograph.)

Stroebe, Lilian L. "Section Meetings: Program and Management," 4 : 207–216. (Gives list of suggestions for such programs, etc. Useful for incipient program-makers and others.)

—— "The Real Knowledge of a Foreign Country," 4 : 288–294, 348–356, 407–412, 5 : 38–44, 93–101. (Discussion of this and how it is to be imparted. Lists of helps for French, German, and Spanish geography, history, constitution, administration, newspapers, periodicals, and arts. Most useful.)

Sturges, C. "The Spanish Textbook," 5:256–266. (Statistics as to numbers of Spanish texts on the market. Discussion of suitable books for the various years, with good evaluation of individual books and suggestions as to choosing texts for a particular class. Useful.)

Sundstrom, C. O. "Grammar in First-Year Spanish," 4:178–183. (Grammar in live form should form the backbone of the elementary instruction in Spanish.)

Thomas, Calvin. "Good and Bad Reasons for Studying Languages in Schools," 5:1–11. (Language is of no use unless the person who studies it will use it later in life. Culture and discipline are illusory. Language work is nine tenths memory work. But the writer, nevertheless, seems to believe in language study for large masses of pupils. Just why, is not evident.)

Van Horne, J. "The Collection of Data in Modern Language Teaching," 4:357–363. (Proposes to collect data concerning various phases of enrollment and teaching methods in high schools and colleges of the United States. The proposed questionnaire is interesting as indicating the points to be cleared up.)

Veillet-Lavallée, Ch. "L'Enseignement des Langues Vivantes en France," 5:295–308. (Outlines the present regulations concerning modern language in the various kinds of schools of France, which are of great interest at the present time. Explains why the modern-language association of France is advocating renewed and larger study of German in French schools and universities.)

Wallace, Elizabeth. "The New French University," 4:340–344. (An account of the movement for university reform in France.)

Warshaw, J. "Teachers' Courses in Spanish," 5:200–209. (Predicts the growth of teachers' courses in Spanish. Outlines what he considers the proper fields of such courses and discusses practice teaching.)

Waxman, S. M. "Fulminations of a College Professor with Special Reference to Spanish," 4:397–406. (Somewhat negative criticism of conditions obtaining in American schools, especially concerning modern-language teaching. Interesting.)

WEISINGER, NINA. "Suggestions for Combining Methods in Teaching Spanish," 5:370–373. (By "combining methods" is here meant merely that in direct-method teaching, sporadic translation be allowed at the end of the first year or in the second year of college Spanish, and further that explanation and a rule, when requiring detailed stating, should be given in English instead of Spanish.)

WHITNEY, MARION P. "Random Notes of a Modern Language Teacher in Europe," 5:429–434. (Very interesting notes about present-day teaching in European modern-language classes.)

WILKINS, E. H., and ALTROCCHI, R. "Current American Books for Italian Classes," 4:226–228. (Lists, with publisher and price, of grammars, readers, texts, and composition and conversation books.)

WILLIAMS, C. SCOTT. "Visualizing the Verb Forms in Spanish," 5:317–319. (Tells of pupils' difficulties in understanding terms of grammar and the phenomena of verb forms. He uses a chart to illustrate how finite forms are formed from the infinitives.)

School and Society

DAVIDSON, P. E. "German Language Legislation and the Spirit of American Education," 11:301–310. (Condemns as un-American any state legislation forbidding the teaching of any foreign language.)

PHELPS, RUTH S. "Why Study French?" 11:486–493. (Brief for French in the schools.)

Hispania

BELLOTINE, MARY. "How to Teach a Beginning Class Spanish," 3:223–224. (Devices. Outline of work for opening week.)

BOSSUET, P. "Why They Failed," 3:109–111. (Tabulates the reasons for failures to accomplish the required amount of work in high schools, as follows: (1) overcrowded classes; (2) lack of supervised study; (3) lack of knowing how to study; (4) lack of drill; (5) teacher's inability to teach; (6) lack of motivation in the study.)

Bove, A. J. "Spanish Stenography," 3 : 355–357. (An account of actual course as given. Valuable.)

Cameron, Edith. "The Laboratory Method in the Teaching of Spanish," 4 : 93–97. (This consists of having the pupils write original sketches in Spanish at the board and illustrate them if they desire; of entering such sketches in a laboratory notebook and of discussing these notebooks among themselves; further, of having a pupil teach the class occasionally; in short, of inducing spontaneous activity.)

Castro, Americo. "Movimiento Científico en España," 3 : 185–202. (An excellent résumé of the recent advance in Spanish scholarship in the various lines of study.)

Cebrian, J. C. "On Italian and Spanish in American Education," 3 : 5–10. (Polemic against E. H. Wilkins' "Italian and Spanish in American Education," Bulletin of the New England Modern Language Association, IX, May, 1919, and a brief for Spanish.)

Chapman, C. E., and Priestley, H. "United States Exchange Professorships with Hispanic Countries," 3 : 1–4. (Exchange is now effected between the government of Chile and the University of California. Two professors from California were sent to Chile in 1920. Outlines of the plan.)

Coester, A. "Montevideo and *Pegaso*," 3 : 79–84. (Interesting facts about Uruguay and some of its writers. *Pegaso* is given some notice as a typical literary journal. Excerpts from the same.)

—— "The Seventh National Foreign Trade Convention and Its Relation to the Teaching of Spanish," 3 : 237–246. (Account of it; also statistics of letters in various languages translated by a certain translation bureau; also account of facilities for study of Spanish for Americans in Cuba.)

De Onis, Federico. "El Español en los Estados Unidos," 3 : 265–286. (Gives his impressions of the state of the study of Spanish; mentions persons and agencies, also opponents of Spanish studies. Writes of the opposition to Spanish as an implement of culture, and of the quarrel over teaching Spanish or American Spanish. The attitude of Spain itself has been one of too great isolation.)

Dorado, C. M. "Impresiones de España," 3 : 289–294. (Travel sketches.)

Doyle, H. G. "'Tumefaction' in the Study of Spanish," 3:133–143. (Polemic against articles on the teaching of Spanish in our schools.)

Espinosa, A. M. "Viajes por España," 4:15–17, 56–60. (Account of a trip in Spain in the interest of making folklore collections.)

Fitz-Gerald, T. A. "Some Enrollment Figures," 3:150–157. (The statistics show a decrease in the French enrollment for 1919–1920, and an increase in the enrollment in Spanish for the same year, mostly in colleges.)

Goodman, Irvin S. "The Difficulty of the Object Pronouns and the Subjunctive in Spanish," 4:86–87. (The difficulty is overcome by the use of cards containing type sentences for translation on which the pupil writes his translation, whereupon they are handed back and corrected by the teacher and reviewed orally by the class.)

Harrington, C. P. "Attainable Aims in the Teaching of Spanish in the Secondary Schools," 3:144–149. (Subscribes to these aims as valid: (1) accurate pronunciation; (2) thorough drill in grammar; (3) ability to read, write, and speak the language in its simpler forms.)

Hendrix, W. S. "A Second-Year Problem," 3:213–216. (Remarks on frequent lack of interest in second-year classes. Ideas and *realia* to overcome this.)

—— "Standardization of Teaching of Spanish in the High Schools," 4:88–92. (Spanish teaching in high schools is very uneven, which results in great difficulties in university classes both for student and teacher. Spanish teaching in high schools should therefore be standardized. This would be possible with the large city, or at best the state, as the unit. In view of the probable relegation of elementary language teaching to the high school, this becomes more necessary still.)

Hills, E. C. "English Translations of Spanish Plays," 3:97–108. (Popularity of Spanish dramatists as judged by number of English translations of their works: Calderón, 32; Lope de Vega, 5; Cervantes, Lope de Rueda, and Moreto, 2 each; Roxas Zorilla, Solis, and Torres Naharro, 1 each. Among recent dramatists, Echegaray leads with 14 translations. A catalogue of English translations of Spanish plays follows.)

—— "The Accusative *A*," 3:216–223. (A handy rule for its use, and a discussion of its origin, function, and geographical distribution.)

Jaen, Ramón. "Un articulo de Jaen," 4 : 61–71. (A posthumous article of Ramón Jaen on Stevenson's *Olalla*.)

Johnson, Edith. "A Plea for Reduction of College Entrance Requirements in Spanish," 4 : 76–79. (High schools cannot read 650–1000 pages in a three-year course in Spanish, besides doing the desired oral work, etc. Better that less and more thorough work should be done.)

Jones, C. K. "Suggested Reading in Spanish-American Prose," 3 : 207–213. (Remarks on the nature and spirit of the literature. Lists of titles.)

Keniston, H. "Common Words in Spanish," 3 : 85–96. (Lists of 1322 words most commonly used in a "few score" of texts, with use of each class of words given in percentages. Useful as a guide in choosing vocabulary for elementary texts.)

—— "Galdós, Interpreter of Life," 3 : 203–206. (Encomium and analysis.)

Luria, M. A. "Teaching Commercial Spanish," 3 : 251–254. (Suggestions as to what a commercial Spanish course should contain, partly based on experience, partly on theory. Valuable hints.)

Mercado, Julio. "En Defensa de la Lengua Española," 4 : 72–75. (Spanish owes its popularity as a school study in the United States to our proximity to South America. It is unnecessary to seek further justification for it.)

Ortega, J. "El Curso del Verano en Madrid," 3 : 358–364. (An account of the summer courses given to American students in Spain in 1920, also a speech by Professor E. C. Hills given during this session.)

Owen, A. L. "The Spanish Teacher's Responsibility," 4 : 10–14. (Remarks about making studies easy and about "interest" as a factor in learning. Believes in using easy methods as expedients but not as a philosophy of education. Greek and Latin are gone as school subjects. Their places must be worthily filled by French and Spanish.)

Ray, M. L. "Six Weeks in Madrid," 3 : 298–302. (Interesting notes of a student's summer sojourn.)

Riano y Gayangos, Juan. "Address," 3 : 31–36. (Résumé of the literary and cultural history of Spain. Reference to efforts toward establishing courses of study in things Spanish, in American cities.)

Romera-Navarro, M. "El Alma de Toledo," 3 : 294–297. (Historical notes.)

Rowe, L. S. "El Español debe enseñarse en los Estados Unidos," 3 : 24–26. (Spanish should be taught in the United States for cultural, practical, and social reasons.)

Salmans, Edith. "A Practical Spanish Vocabulary," 4 : 80–85. (Spanish in easy phrase should be used from the start in teaching Spanish. For this, anecdotes may be used, also songs. The celebration of festivals and the acting of plays in Spanish is also useful. Several games are described and recommended.)

Schevill, R. "Menendez y Pelayo y el Estudio de la Cultura Española en los Estados Unidos," 3 : 61–78. (Refers to the status of Spanish teaching in the United States and to Menendez y Pelayo's work on Lope de Vega. Necessity of a complete edition of the latter. Plea for a Spanish House similar to *La Maison Française* at Columbia University, in some American city, and for Spanish-American interchange of professors.)

Sherwell, G. "Del Potomac al Guaire," 3 : 247–250. (Account of a summer trip to South America for students, under the auspices of Georgetown University.)

Tomás, T. Navarro. "Lecciones de Pronunciación Española: I — Pronunciación de las Consonantes *b*, *v*; II — Pronunciación de las Consonantes *c*, *z*," 4 : 1–9. (Historic survey and present usage concerning the pronunciation of *b*, *v*, and *c*, *z*.)

—— "Lecciones de Pronunciación Española; Comentarios a la Prosodia de la Academia: III — El Acento," 4 : 51–55. (A continuation of the article in 4 : 1–9, which treats of accent as the former article did of the pronunciation of certain sounds.)

Umphrey, G. W. "Spanish-American Facts of Today and Yesterday," 3 : 304–316. (Notes on Americanism in our literature. Comparison of Walt Whitman and José S. Chocano of Peru.)

Wilkins, L. A. "A Center for Spanish Culture in the United States," 3 : 318–323. (Report on a plan to establish a *Casa de las Españas* in New York City for the propagation of Spanish studies.)

Zumeta, C. "Misiones Laicas en América," 3 : 123–132. (Historical notes.)

Vol. 3 also contains a report of the third annual meeting and the president's address, which deals with phases of the work of the American Association of Teachers of Spanish.

Vol. 4 also contains an account of the fourth annual meeting of the Association, including the address of its president and a preliminary report of a committee on *realia* for Spanish. *Hispania* also contains in each number valuable bibliographies.

Publications of the New England Modern Language Association

Shay, Caroline A. "Teaching English to Immigrants," 10 : 9–18. (Outlines of the devices used, which are usual ones, adapted to the teaching of English to foreign adults.)

Wilkins, L. A. "The Improvement of the Teaching of French and Spanish, Especially Spanish," 10 : 19–41. (Aims vary from time to time and place to place. Quotes as a general aim that given in the New York Syllabus for Spanish. Discussion of amounts required. Favors the direct method of teaching. Discussion of pre-tests. Calls for smaller classes and fewer hours for teachers in order that better work may be done. Teacher-training also should be improved. Various helps in this direction mentioned. General brief for the study of Spanish. Summary.)

Young, Mary V. "The New Plan of Admission to College," 10 : 3–8. (Facts and figures.)

Vol. 10 contains also an account of the annual meeting, including reports of the officers and groups.

VARIOUS JOURNALS

Burkhard, O. "The Future of the Study of German in America," *School Review*, 28 : 360–367. (Counsels an early revival of interest in German for the schools.)

Flom, G. T. "Pedagogical Notes on Norwegian Grammar," *Scandinavian Studies and Notes*, 6 : 71–74. (Notes on orthography and pronunciation for use in elementary work.)

Grahan, W. P. "The Modern Language Situation," *Virginia Journal of Education*, 13 : 300–302. (The number and percentage of students pursuing French, Spanish, German, and Italian in sixteen universities in the United States.)

Sauzé, E. B. de. "Aims and Methods of Modern Language Teaching," *Pennsylvania School Journal*, 69 : 68–71.

Schoell, Frank L. "La maison française de l'Université de Chicago," *Revue universitaire*, 29 : 138–141. (Such houses are now established at Columbia, Wisconsin, and Chicago universities.)

Snedden, D. "Modern Languages in the Public Schools," *School Life*, Vol. 6, No. 7 : 6. (Questions value of modern languages, but in the same breath calls for teaching Spanish and Japanese because these are very important. Indeed, he seems to call for increasing the numbers studying modern languages, although deploring that practically all power acquired is soon lost.)

—— "The Place of the French Language in Human Culture," *American Review of Reviews*, 62 : 539–540. (An abstract of a French article. Shows expansion of study of French during the war, particularly in the United States.)

Note. For continuation of this bibliography, see *Modern Language Journal*, 6 : 374–383 (1922); and 7 : 461–478 (1923). Similar bibliographies may be expected in the *Modern Language Journal* annually.

APPENDIX B

AMERICANS SHOULD STUDY FOREIGN LANGUAGES[1]

Resolutions Adopted by the Modern Language Association of America at the Columbus Meeting, March 29–31, 1920

Whereas the results of the war have brought this country more closely into relation with foreign countries than was previously the case: be it

Resolved, (1) That, in view of the fact that many more Americans than hitherto will go to foreign countries in diplomatic service, in commercial enterprises, and on economic, scientific, educational, and other missions, that many more foreigners than hitherto will come here on similar errands, and that international correspondence on such matters will assume greatly increased proportions, it is urgently desirable that a much larger number of Americans than hitherto be trained to understand and to use the languages of the foreign countries with which we shall be most closely associated;

(2) That, in view of the fact that the men and women of America should henceforth seriously endeavor to understand the psychology, the problems, and the achievement of the main foreign peoples, it is urgently desirable that a large proportion of high-school and college students should secure such a knowledge of the main foreign languages as will enable them to gain this understanding; and

(3) *That the study of modern foreign languages should in general be begun earlier and continued longer than is now usually the case; that is, that the average student whose course is to end with the high school should study one foreign language for at least three years, and that the average student whose course continues into college should have at least three years of modern foreign-language work in high school and at least three years more in college.*

H. H. Bender
R. H. Fife
E. C. Hills
B. E. Young
E. H. Wilkins, *Chairman*

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[1] Printed by the United States Bureau of Education as Teacher's Leaflet No. 14, August, 1920. Government Printing Office, Washington.

URGE PLACING OF MODERN-LANGUAGE TEACHING ON POST-WAR BASIS

"More Stress on Practical Value," says the National Federation of Modern-Language Teachers

In view of a widely recogoized need of post-war reconstruction and after full deliberation, the National Federation of Modern-Language Teachers puts forth the following recommendations and guiding principles with regard to the teaching of modern foreign languages in the secondary schools:

1. More stress should be laid on the practical value of modern languages than before the war, and curricula should be arranged with this consideration in view, whether the pupil is to pursue the study for one year or six.

2. Practical value includes the discipline which comes from forming good habits of study, as well as preparation for the activities of life, and all of the direct and indirect benefits of education.

3. It is now generally admitted that a knowledge of the life and thought of foreign nations is more desirable than ever.

4. Speaking ability is more necessary than before the war; therefore the modern-language course in the secondary schools must be lengthened and be made more effective.

5. Moreover, such thorough courses in the secondary schools are requisite to provide competent modern-language teachers.

6. In the preparation for effective teaching of modern language, travel and study abroad are essential. School boards should therefore encourage teachers to secure this training by making suitable financial provision, such as a bonus for the returning teacher or leave of absence on half pay.

7. Modern-language teachers should be licensed by subject, not by blanket certificate as at present.

8. Teachers who cannot be certified to do the oral work should be allowed to teach reading courses only.

9. In regular courses the procedure should be analogous to the reform method, combining the advantages of the direct and indirect methods.

10. Provision should be made for individual differences in the ability of pupils by assigning extra tasks to the more capable and

by providing special sections for those who have had one or more modern languages or show uncommon linguistic ability.

11. For the satisfactory conduct of the class as a whole as well as for their own good, pupils should be tested out early in the course, if not before they enter, and if found deficient in oral ability should be enrolled in reading courses.

12. The modern languages offered in secondary schools should be French, German, and Spanish, the selection of the first language to depend on local conditions.

13. For pupils specializing in modern languages the course should be one of four to six years for the first language taken and of two to four years for the second, with at least two years between starting points. All others should take not less than three years.

14. Less modern language is now being studied than before the war. To remedy this situation we urge (*a*) that the quality of modern-language teaching should be improved; (*b*) that all modern-language teachers should feel their cause to be a common one and should recognize that a division into separate language camps is particularly deplorable.

15. Supervised study is highly desirable, especially in the early stages of the course.

16. It is pedagogically desirable that as a rule language instruction in secondary schools be given by teachers who have received their education in America.

17. The movement toward closer correlation of high-school studies is commendable, especially between the modern languages themselves and between these subjects and English, history, and Latin. Syllabi should be prepared to facilitate such correlation.

18. In conclusion, we wish to emphasize the following points: (*a*) While the value of modern-language study has always been great, it is bound to increase in importance with the entry of our country into more intimate political, commercial, and intellectual relations with the other countries of the world; (*b*) neither speaking ability nor mastery of a foreign language can be achieved except by a longer and more thorough course than is now given in American high schools; (*c*) as a secondary-school discipline foreign language commends itself by its cumulative process. It requires consistency

of method and continuity of study, rendering it equal in this regard to any and superior to most other subjects of the high-school curriculum.

Committee: E. W. Bagster-Collins, A. Coleman, W. A. Cooper, Miss A. Dunster, Mrs. C. C. Hughes, E. S. Ingraham, K. McKenzie, B. Q. Morgan, W. R. Price, C. M. Purin, B. F. Schappelle, W. B. Snow, Miss M. Whitney, C. H. Handschin, *Chairman*

APPENDIX C

SYLLABI OF FOUR-YEAR COURSES IN FRENCH, GERMAN, AND SPANISH FOR HIGH SCHOOLS[1]

In a syllabus it is naturally essential to begin with a statement of the aim that is to be kept in mind in carrying out the program. A statement concerning the aim in teaching Spanish, but applicable to any foreign language, was recently made by Mr. Lawrence A. Wilkins, which we may quote, substituting for "Spanish" the words "a modern foreign language":

> The aim in the teaching of a modern foreign language is to effect that thorough mental discipline imparted by a study of grammar, idiom, and syntax, and so to develop that ready and accurate facility of ear, tongue, and eye that, all combined, will make the present and future use of the language, and progress therein, both possible and certain. We cannot in two, three, or even four years assure a student a complete mastery of the language. But we can and should so train him that he may apply his knowledge to any one or to several

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[1] The committee, appointed at the annual meeting of the Association of Modern Language Teachers of the Central West and South in 1917, to draw up standard four-year syllabi for High School foreign language courses, has had the advantage of working upon the syllabi prepared by the College Entrance Examination Board, the Association of Romanic Language Teachers of California, the New York Minima, the National Education Association Minima, the Report of the Committee on First-Year Course in College Spanish appointed by the Central Division of the Modern Language Association, the Report of the Committee of Five on a Course of Study in Spanish appointed by the Modern Language Association, the Report of the Interlocking Committee on the Coördination of Language Study for the High Schools of Illinois, appointed by the Annual High School Conference of the University of Illinois, the four-year course in French and German for High Schools recommended by the University of Wisconsin, similar courses issued by the University of California, and a report on modern languages issued by the New Jersey Department of Public Instruction, as well as the two sets of Resolutions adopted in 1920 by the Modern Language Association of America and the National Federation of Modern Language Teachers, both of which were published by the Bureau of Education as Teacher's Leaflet No. 14, August, 1920. (Reprinted in this volume as Appendix B.)

> ends with the self-confidence (conscious or unconscious) that he can easily grow up to any demands that may be made upon his knowledge of the language.

To this statement at least one thing should be added. In the judgment of your committee the teacher should be able, even in the first-year course in High School, to instill into the student some appreciation of the spirit and culture of the people whose language is being studied.

It is obvious that a ready and accurate reading knowledge of the language is by far the most important means by which to attain these aims. By "reading knowledge" we mean the ability to understand the content of a text without translating it, and to pronounce the text correctly and fluently. By the end of each year, pupils in a High School course should be able to read fluently and understandingly, without recourse to translation, the texts used in each year — texts which shall match in difficulty those indicated in the following table:

I Year.	Any standard elementary reader.
II Year.	French — Malot: *Sans Famille*
	German — Storm: *Immensee*
	Spanish — Valera: *El pájaro verde*
III Year.	French — Halévy: *L'Abbé Constantin*
	German — Riehl: *Burg Neideck*
	Spanish — Carrión y Aza: *Zaragüeta*
IV Year.	French — Daudet: *Tartarin de Tarascon*
	German — Keller: *Romeo und Julia auf dem Dorfe*
	Spanish — Alarcón: *El Capitán Veneno*

In view of the present demands in regard to speaking-ability in French, German, and Spanish, as well as for reasons to be mentioned presently, the attainment of some facility in using the language orally with correct pronunciation is naturally one of the aims of the course. Accordingly, oral drill should form a considerable part of the work, not only because it affords practice in speaking, but also as a means of mastering the grammar and attaining fluency in reading. Such oral drill — question and answer, paraphrase, reproduction of content, etc. — must not, however, be confused with real conversation, which under present conditions can be acquired only in a very small proportion of classes. Similarly, the term "composition" should be applied to the expression of ideas in one's own words, not to mere translation. It must be remembered that some teachers are themselves not able to converse in the language taught, and that it is idle to expect students to acquire a more accurate oral and written command of the language than that of their teachers.

In these days, when methodology has assumed such a prominent place in the educational world that some Teachers' Colleges have actually found themselves obliged to insist that students who take a course in methods of teaching this, that, or the other subject should also be obliged to take a content course in that same subject, it will naturally be expected that your committee say something in regard to method. Many persons would have us believe that the grammar method is hopelessly out of date; the so-called natural method (than which there never was anything more unnatural) has had its ardent adherents and still has them; and at the present moment the reform method or direct method seems to be gaining the upper hand. The essential difference between these methods is that in the old grammar method the foreign language was studied chiefly through the eye by means of rules and paradigms, instruction being imparted in the language of the pupils, with emphasis on the translation of texts from the foreign language into English and of simple sentences from English into the foreign language. The natural method abandoned to a large extent the study of grammar, and attempted to teach pupils of any age in the way that infants are taught to speak — by imitation. The direct or reform method aims to make the language vivid and interesting by using it in the classroom; but, when properly understood, this method restores the study of grammar as the fundamental element of all language study. The direct method uses little or no translation from or into the mother tongue, since in the opinion of its votaries the use of the mother tongue, at least in the earlier stages of instruction, hinders the acquisition of a feeling for the foreign language; on the other hand, this method of instruction attempts to form new language habits by the abundant use, orally and in writing, of passages in the foreign language that are adapted to the understanding and interest of the pupils.

Your committee cannot help feeling that the method to be ultimately adopted by our best teachers will contain the most valuable elements in each of these systems, and will reject the rest; and furthermore, that every teacher must, to a certain extent, evolve his or her own personal method. While, therefore, no particular method is exclusively recommended, we would stress the necessity for a large amount of oral practice in the foreign language for the following reasons:

1. It gives training in pronunciation and intonation.
2. It helps to build up an active vocabulary.
3. It facilitates the learning of grammatical forms and constructions, or, in other words, leads to the acquisition of a proper feeling for normal grammatical usage.
4. It consequently conduces to fluency in speaking and in reading.

While learning to read simple prose with a good pronunciation and intonation, the pupil must also, sooner or later, acquire the ability to translate accurately into idiomatic English any text he may be reading. Just how early in the course translation work should begin depends upon circumstances. Some teachers prefer to avoid translating as a systematic exercise in the earlier stages of instruction, — for instance, during the first year or two; but the advisability of this procedure depends upon the teacher's having a good command of the foreign language and being sufficiently resourceful to make the meaning clear without too frequent recourse to explanation or translation in English. The more the pupil hears of the foreign language, the sooner will he become proficient in the use of that language. It should be remembered, however, that ability to translate from a foreign language may be of no less importance for practical purposes than ability to read without translating, and also that translation affords in many cases the simplest means of testing by examination the pupil's knowledge of the language and his accurate comprehension of the meaning of what he reads. But whatever method is followed, the principle which must guide the teacher is suggested in the instructions issued by the Minister of Public Instruction in Austria:

> The teacher of modern languages should bear in mind that he must use the language which is the subject of study as much as possible, and the language of his pupils as much as is necessary; but he should never forget that he must at all times be intelligible to all the pupils.

This principle applied to the teaching of any modern foreign language should prevent the attempt to cover too much ground in the first year. Even if at the end of the second year in high school pupils fail to attain speaking ability, their work will be well worth while if they have acquired ability to study in the original language such great works of the literature of foreign countries as their maturity enables them to comprehend and appreciate. Many persons who have never had the privilege of foreign travel and who speak indifferently, if at all, any foreign language, are able to delight their friends as well as themselves by their knowledge of the literature, art, history, and culture of various foreign nations.

Teachers who are not proficient in the oral use of the foreign language would do better to substitute translation and retranslation for much of the oral practice. On the other hand, those who give a large amount of time to oral work in a foreign language will not be able, especially in the first two years, to read intensively in the class as many pages as those teachers who give less time to oral practice. It is suggested, therefore, that where comparatively little time is available for reading in class, the desirable amount of class reading be made up by more rapid supplementary reading: reading at sight or home reading assigned for content only.

The principle which we have just stated, that the teacher's words must always be intelligible to all the pupils, applies to all methods, although the danger of being misunderstood is greater when the direct method is used. It follows that English should be used regularly in teaching the facts of grammar, and in other cases where exact statements are necessary. It is generally agreed, however, that certain types of grammatical drill may easily be conducted entirely in the foreign language, when once the principle involved has been clearly set forth with suitable examples. Such types of drill are, for instance, substitution exercises designed to afford practice in the use of pronouns, and exercises in changing the form of the verbs in given sentences. The direct method may well be used from the very beginning in dealing with objects and actions in the classroom, and to some extent in dealing with conditions of daily life outside the classroom. In any case, training in the forms of the language and in the application of grammatical principles, whether by the formal study of rules and paradigms or by the development through systematic practice of a feeling for proper expression, must form the backbone of the work in all beginning classes.

Some teachers may desire to conduct the work of the first semester or even of the first year on a phonetic basis, which implies approaching the foreign language from the standpoint of sound rather than from that of spelling — in other words, by means of the ear rather than the eye — and facilitating the acquisition of correct pronunciation not only by imitation but also by the use of simple physiological explanations and demonstrations. This method may also involve the use of phonetic symbols, which are of value to a pupil when once he has accurately learned to form the sounds represented by them. The use of extended phonetic transcriptions is not to be recommended until the later stages of the work, and then only in the case of teachers who have thoroughly mastered the system. Every teacher should at least have sufficient knowledge of the theory of phonetics to be able to explain the physiological formation of the sounds in such a way that the pupil will be taught to place the organs of speech in the proper position and not be obliged to rely entirely upon an accidental ability to imitate sounds more or less imperfectly heard. One of the best helps in the attainment of a good pronunciation is the memorizing of short poems or passages of prose, provided the correct pronunciation is learned at the same time with the words; such passages, when retained in the memory, form a sort of reference-table to which new passages may be compared for sound and idiom, and the ability to repeat them rapidly and accurately gives the pupil confidence in using the foreign language.

For the grammar work in particular there are two methods of covering the material of the first two years in a high school course. A grammar large enough to occupy the entire two years may be used in going over the ground once. This method your committee does not favor. The other method is to take a short grammar or some specific portion of a longer grammar, presenting material for one year's work, and then use in the second year an elementary composition book or a reference grammar built systematically to provide a review of the grammatical principles already studied, while giving some of the more important details omitted from the introductory book. The student should cover in two years, by either method, all of the regular and the auxiliary verbs, and most of the more commonly used irregular verbs; the gender and the formation of the plural of nouns; the agreement and position of adjectives; the entire paradigm of personal pronouns; the possessive and demonstrative pronouns (stressing adjectival and pronominal uses); relative and interrogative pronouns; adverbs; negatives; numerals; and the simpler fundamental principles involved in the syntax of the verb.

The committee especially recommends that in both verbs and pronouns the second person intimate forms, both singular and plural, be taught systematically in their proper places. Even though the teacher may not care to drill the pupils on these forms, they should become part of the student's mental picture of the paradigms in question, since he will frequently meet them in almost any reading that he undertakes.

Grammar work of the third and fourth years should consist of a careful review of the forms of the language as well as the principles of syntax already studied, together with copious practice in using the language orally. The more advanced study of syntax as distinct from morphology should not be undertaken too early — in most cases, not before the fourth year of the high school course.

Details concerning the separate languages are given in the following pages under the appropriate headings in the reports of the several sub-committees. It should be said here that the aim of the Committee has been primarily to make a statement of what should be covered in each year, in each of the three languages, rather than to discuss or recommend methods of instruction. The committee has with deliberate intention refrained from recommending specific grammars or other textbooks at any stage of the work. If the members of the Association desire to have a series of grammars, composition books, and reading texts drawn up and graded according to difficulty and adaptation to one or another stage of the work, this should be taken up as a separate task.

SYLLABUS OF A FOUR-YEAR COURSE IN FRENCH FOR HIGH SCHOOLS

First-Year French

Pronunciation

An accurate pronunciation is best taught by means of simple physiological explanations of the formation of sounds, and *contrast with the nearest English sounds.* The subject should be taken up at the very first lesson, and continued constantly throughout the year; no incorrect pronunciation should be allowed to pass without correction, and drill on pronunciation and rhythm should be a part of every lesson. A phonetic alphabet, giving a single sign for each sound, is of great value in enabling the pupil to distinguish the different sounds and the silent letters, and when once the correct pronunciation of each sound has been learned, in aiding him to pronounce when studying without supervision. It is not necessary for the pupil to be instructed in theoretical phonetics.

Grammar

Articles.

Definite and Indefinite (forms and general rules for use).

Adjectives.

Rules for forming the feminine and plural, including some common irregular adjectives, such as: *beau*, *blanc*, *bon*, *cher*, *heureux*, *nouveau*, *vieux*, etc.; comparison; agreement; position, including rules for adjectives which precede nouns; demonstrative, interrogative, and possessive adjectives.

Nouns.

Gender (the article to be learned with each noun); formation of plural (including words ending in *-al*, *-eau*, and the word *œil*).

Pronouns.

The use of pronouns should be taught by means of abundant simple exercises, both oral and written; conjunctive or unstressed pronouns; disjunctive or stressed pronouns; relative pronouns, omitting the more complicated cases; *en* and *y*, as equivalent to preposition and pronoun, or as conjunctive adverbs.

Verbs.

(*a*) Regular verbs of the groups ending in *-er*, *-ir*, *-re;* verbs of the types of *lever*, *jeter;* assignment of verbs met in reading to the proper group.

(*b*) Tenses and forms to be studied: present; past descriptive or imperfect; future; past future or conditional; present perfect or past indefinite; participles, imperative. To be recognized but not studied: past absolute or past definite. Distinctions in usage between the various past tenses.

(*c*) Irregular verbs in the principal parts, with the present and imperfect indicative, and the imperative (the past definite to be recognized but not memorized): *aller*, *avoir*, *connaître*, *croire*, *dire*, *écrire*, *être*, *faire*, *lire*, *mettre*, *ouvrir*, *partir*, *pouvoir*, *prendre*, *recevoir*, *savoir*, *venir*, *voir*, *vouloir;* and the single forms *il faut* and *s'il vous plaît*, as well as the past participles of *mourir* and *naître*.

(*d*) Reflexive verbs, with drill on such verbs as *se lever*, *s'en aller*, *s'appeler*, *s'asseoir*.

(*e*) Verbs compounded with *être*, as *aller*, *entrer*, *partir*, *venir*.

(*f*) The forms and some of the uses of the subjunctive should be pointed out, without being studied in detail.

Adverbs.

Position; adverbs of quantity and their use, as *assez*, *beaucoup*, *bien*, *combien*, *peu*, *plus*, *trop*.

Negation.

Ne . . . pas; ne . . . rien; ne . . . jamais; ne . . . plus.

Numerals.

Cardinals; ordinals; time of day; dates. The study of numerals should be begun as early as possible; it may be used, for instance, for practice in pronunciation.

Reading

From 75 to 100 pages should be read from an elementary reader, or from editions of simple nineteenth-century texts. Translation into English should be used so far as is necessary to insure and to test accuracy.

Oral Practice

It is naturally impossible to set up a fixed standard of oral attainment, and your committee does not deem it advisable to prescribe by rule what portion of the recitation period should be devoted to oral drill. All teachers, however, whatever be their method, should try to impart ear-training and a certain degree of oral spontaneity.

NOTE. The minimum grammar requirement as outlined above is approximately covered in most first-year books, or in some equivalent portion of longer books.

SECOND-YEAR FRENCH

Grammar

The grammar covered in the first year should be thoroughly reviewed at the beginning of the second year, with special attention to verbs and pronouns. After this has been done, the study of grammar should be continued, including forms not previously taken up, and elementary syntax. A textbook should be used, which may be the same one used in the first year, and the reading should be constantly drawn upon for illustrative material.

Verbs.

(*a*) Formation of all tenses of verbs, with distinction between literary and conversational forms.

(*b*) Intensive study of the conversational forms.

(*c*) Commoner uses of the subjunctive, with drill in phrases of the type: *j'ai peur qu'il ne soit malade*; *qu'il s'en aille; il faut qu'il fasse cela; quoi qu'il fasse;* etc.

(*d*) All common irregular verbs (about 50, with their compounds). The rare verbs may be neglected, except for the forms met in reading.

Conjunctions.

Especially those used with the subjunctive.

Composition

(*a*) Writing of simple, very short themes based on topics read or discussed in class. Use of certain words, constructions, and idioms to be required.

(*b*) Translation from English into French, primarily for grammatical drill.

Oral Work

(*a*) Drill by question and answer.

(*b*) Reading aloud, with attention to pronunciation, expression, and intonation.

(*c*) Recitation of prose and verse from memory.

(*d*) Brief narratives, prepared or impromptu.

(*e*) Dictation.

Reading

From 175 to 225 pages of easy nineteenth-century texts should be read. The reading gives the point of departure for other work, except for such portion of the grammar work as is based on a textbook. It also gives the opportunity for elementary discussion of France, her history, customs, etc. The texts must be chosen with careful regard to difficulty, content, etc. It is desirable throughout the course that a part of each reading lesson be carefully translated, as the only sure means of enforcing absolute accuracy in interpreting the text read.

Outside Reading

Of the amount of reading specified above, some 25 to 50 pages might well be prescribed for outside reading; and voluntary outside reading is recommended over and above the prescribed reading.

Third-Year French

Grammar

Review of grammar, based largely on reading matter. Drill in conversational forms and in the use of the subjunctive.

Composition and Oral Exercises

Continuation of the work of the first two years, with emphasis on correct pronunciation and intonation, and on proper use of tenses. Dictation.

Reading

From 275 to 325 pages should be read; texts of the nineteenth century are to be preferred, but a few from the tragedy and comedy of the seventeenth century, and La Fontaine's Fables, may be used. Different literary genres should be represented and used as a basis for commenting on literary values and on French ideas. Voluntary outside reading is recommended, and from 50 to 75 pages of the amount specified above may well be prescribed for outside reading.

FOURTH-YEAR FRENCH

Continuation of the work of the third year. From 425 to 475 pages should be read, and of that amount 75 to 100 pages might well be assigned for outside reading. A portion of the reading should be chosen from the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. Written compositions, and translation from English into French. Conversation, based on the texts read or on subjects of general interest to the pupils.

SYLLABUS OF A FOUR-YEAR COURSE IN GERMAN FOR HIGH SCHOOLS

FIRST-YEAR GERMAN

Reading

Some of the beginners' grammars contain quite enough reading material for the year. Such reading material is usually well graded, since it serves as basis for grammatical exercises. If a grammar is used containing no reading matter, a well-arranged reader should be used and some 30 to 50 pages should be read during the year. The amount of reading will naturally depend upon the grade of difficulty of the material.

Grammar

Articles.

Declension of:

1. The definite article.
2. The indefinite article.

Adjectives.

1. A thorough mastery of the weak and mixed declensions of the adjective is recommended. The strong declension of the adjective may be explained when such forms occur in the text, but no drill in its use need be given in the first year.
2. The demonstrative adjectives.
3. The possessive adjectives.

Nouns.

The declension of the more common nouns. Enough work should be done in the noun declension to enable the pupils to recognize the various forms in the reading and to use the form required in the exercises and in reproduction. The emphasis formerly placed on this topic should be avoided.

Pronouns.

1. *Personal:* Considerable oral and written drill in their use should be given, inasmuch as there is constant need of the personal pronouns in oral and written reproduction.
2. *Relative:* Some drill in the use of the forms of the relative pronouns should be given, but much less emphasis is desirable than in the case of the personal pronouns.
3. *Interrogative:* Approximately the same emphasis that is recommended for the relative pronoun.
4. *Possessive:* No drill should be given. Forms may be explained when they occur in the reading.
5. *Demonstrative:* Same as possessive pronouns.
6. *Reflexive:* Need be taught only in connection with reflexive verbs like *sich setzen.*

Verbs.

The conjugation of weak and the more usual strong verbs (about forty) with separable and inseparable prefixes. The future-perfect should not be taught in the first year. The three forms of the imperative should be explained when they occur in the reading material. Only the polite form should be required in oral and written reproduction.

The Modal Auxiliaries. The simple tenses only need be required.

Irregular Weak Verbs. The more common of these, such as *kennen, nennen, bringen, denken,* and *wissen,* should be taught if they occur in the text.

Prepositions.

The most common prepositions governing the dative case, those governing the accusative case, and those governing both the dative and the accusative. Since these prepositions are constantly needed in all oral and written work, an abundance of exercises providing drill in their use should be given.

Conjunctions.

Coördinating: aber, denn, oder, sondern, und.

Subordinating: The most common of these, such as *als, wenn, weil, dass,* should be emphasized and much drill in their use should be provided.

Word Order.

Normal; inverted; transposed.

Composition

Where the direct method is used, oral and written exercises in German designed to fix in mind the forms and principles of grammar as well as the vocabulary of the text should be provided for practically all the reading material of the year. These exercises should focus the attention of the pupils especially on the proper *use* of the following: The personal endings and tenses of the verb, the adjective declension, the simple prepositions, and the word-order. Question and answer drill based on the text should gradually lead to oral and written reproduction of the text or portions of it. Care should be taken not to make such reproduction too difficult in the first year. Teachers who are not proficient in the oral use of German may substitute English sentences and short themes based on text read for translation into German.

Vocabulary Drill

An ample amount of exercises specially designed to fix more permanently in the mind of the pupil the vocabulary of the text is recommended. This drill should, however, be confined to words in common use actually occurring in the text. The introduction of too large a number of related words usually leads to mechanical and unprofitable memorizing of long lists of words.

Texts

From the large number of beginners' grammars on the market teachers should select the one best suited to their needs and cover the topics as outlined above. As a rule, most of the grammars contain much more material than can be assimilated by the pupils in the first year.

Memory Work

(See under "Second Year.")

SECOND-YEAR GERMAN

Reading

The basis of the work for the second year should be the reading of 100–150 pages of simple prose, this amount to include outside reading, in case the teacher desires to have pupils begin outside reading as early as the second year. The work, especially in the first half of the year, should be intensive, rather than extensive, in order that the language material may be thoroughly mastered.

Grammar

The first four to six weeks should be devoted to a thorough review of the first year's grammar, and to a certain extent, of the vocabulary. This review should be based on a very easy text. The grammar should be used chiefly for reference and study of paradigms. New grammatical topics to be studied in the second year are:

Adjectives.

The strong declension.
Comparison of adjectives.

Pronouns.

Demonstrative.

Pronominals.

Verbs.

Principal parts of additional strong verbs occurring in the text read.

The irregular weak verbs.

The passive voice (with emphasis on the present and past).

The subjunctive of indirect discourse and unreal condition should be explained, but not much drill in their use need be given.

The modals in perfect tenses with an accompanying infinitive should be explained when they occur in the reading material, but very little drill in their use is to be given at this time.

The most important verbs requiring the object in the dative.

Prepositions.

The most important prepositions requiring the genitive.

Conjunctions.

Additional subordinating conjunctions as they occur in the text.

Composition

As in the first year, teachers should provide for an ample amount of oral and written exercises in German. These exercises should be designed (*a*) to give drill on the grammatical topics studied during this year (including the reviews) and (*b*) to fix in the minds of the pupils the new vocabulary of the texts read.

Following such exercises, oral and written reproduction of suitable portions of the reading material should be required. Again, teachers not proficient in the use of oral German may substitute English exercises and short themes (preferably such as are based on the text) for translation into German.

Vocabulary Drill

The same principle should obtain here as during the first year; viz., a limited amount of words of frequent occurrence well learned, rather than an extensive number of words studied in a superficial way and soon forgotten.

Memory Work

A very material help in the acquisition of a facility in expression and grammatical accuracy can be derived from memory work — a phase in our modern-language instruction not yet fully exploited by teachers. No reading lesson ought to be considered complete until the pupils have memorized some suitable paragraph, episode, scene, or other portion of the reading assignment.

In the second semester of the first year and thereafter suitable poems may be added. A good English version of the poem should be given by the teacher, in order that its beauty may not be marred by attempts at translation on the part of the pupils.

An effective way of arousing the interest of the pupils in German poetry is the singing of German songs. There are some very good songbooks available for this purpose.

Texts

The reading material for the second year should be chosen from texts of the grade of difficulty of *Immensee.* In case the text which the teacher desires to use does not contain exercises, the needed questions and grammatical drill material will have to be supplied by the teacher.

Third-Year German

Reading

In the third year 200–250 pages[1] of German prose and poetry of medium difficulty should be read. Though simpler portions of the reading material may be read more rapidly, the larger part of the texts read should be studied intensively. The chief aim of the third year must still be the mastery of the language. The pupils should, however, be trained to derive enjoyment from the books they read and to appreciate their literary qualities. A brief study of the life of the authors and occasional criticism of their style will be in place.

Supplementary and Outside Reading

The work of the first two years should be intensive in character. All the reading, therefore, may very well be done in the classroom. In the third, and more especially in the fourth year, a fair amount of outside reading, particularly with the better pupils, may be undertaken. Such outside reading should be checked up by the teacher by requiring brief summaries in English, or when possible in German. As a rule the texts selected for this purpose should be of considerably easier grade than those read in the classroom. Care should be taken, however, not to demand this outside reading of pupils who are able to meet only the minimum requirements of the course.

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[1] In computing the number of pages for drama or poetry the regular duodecimo page of approximately 230 words should be used as a standard.

Texts of the grade of difficulty of *Germelshausen* will be found suitable for such supplementary reading.

Grammar

The topics which were only touched upon in the second year (such as the indirect and unreal subjunctives and the modals) should receive due attention at this time. Additional points in grammar, such as the subjunctive of wish and purpose, substitutes for the passive, verbs requiring the genitive, verbs used like modals, etc., should be taken up as they occur in the reading material. Numerous exercises based on the reading should again be furnished. They should be designed (*a*) to provide a review of important topics of grammar previously studied as well as practice in the topics taken up this year; (*b*) to aid in the acquisition of the vocabulary contained in the texts read; (*c*) to serve as preparation for oral and written reproduction.

During the first two years no special reference grammar need be used except where none of the texts used in the second year contain a systematic outline of the essentials of grammar. In the third and fourth years, on the other hand, a reference grammar will be found necessary.

Composition

In addition to the written exercises mentioned under "Grammar," the work in composition should consist of written summaries of portions of the reading material suitable for that purpose, occasional assignments on topics discussed and broadly outlined, and letter writing.

Vocabulary Drill

Inasmuch as the primary aim of the course is the development of reading ability, the emphasis on the acquisition of vocabulary should increase as the work in grammar decreases. Systematic drill in building up the vocabulary by means of synonyms, antonyms, and related words is therefore advocated. As in the first two years, care should be taken to include in this drill only words actually occurring in the texts read. Words of rare occurrence should not be stressed or serve as basis for drill work.

Translation

As a systematic exercise, translation and retranslation need not be undertaken until the second half of the third year. By this time the foreign-language habits will be sufficiently firmly established and there will be no danger of impeding the progress of the work as there would be if translation were undertaken earlier. Retranslation English into German exercises may be regularly assigned about once a week. Translation (German into English) may be done occasionally on portions of the text read.

Texts

For classroom reading in the third year, books of the grade of difficulty of *Pole Poppenspaeler*, *Der Taugenichts*, *Fluch der Schoenheit*, etc., are recommended.

FOURTH-YEAR GERMAN

Reading

The fourth year's work should comprise the reading of some 350–400 standard pages of German drama, prose, and poetry. In this year the pupils may be introduced to the older German classics, more especially to Goethe and Schiller. The pupils should be given a clear although not a detailed account of the significance of the work of these authors. Some of the most prominent German novelists — Storm, Keller, Meyer, Raabe, Fontane, and Frenssen — should likewise receive due attention, but no systematic study of German literature can be undertaken. This work must be left to the college. Suitable poems from Goethe, Schiller, Uhland, etc., should be studied and at least one lyric or ballad committed to memory each month.

Supplementary and Outside Reading

Pupils should be encouraged to do as much outside reading as their spare time will allow. About 150 to 200 pages may be read in this manner. Weak students should be excused from outside reading, if they so desire.

Grammar

In addition to a review of some of the more important topics of the third year's grammar, such new points in grammar as occur in the reading material should be taken up.

Composition

The work in composition should consist of:

- (*a*) Reproduction of texts or portions of texts read.
- (*b*) Recasting of poems, especially ballads, into prose.
- (*c*) Retranslations.
- (*d*) *Freie Aufsaetze* on topics discussed and broadly outlined in the classroom. This may include letter writing and business correspondence.

Texts

- (1) For the classroom — Intensive study:
  - (*a*) *Wilhelm Tell* (or *Die Jungfrau von Orleans*, if *Tell* has been read in the third year).
  - (*b*) *Hermann und Dorothea.*
- (2) For more rapid classroom reading:
  - (*a*) *Frau Sorge.*
  - (*b*) *Romeo und Julia auf dem Dorfe.*
  - (*c*) *Der Schimmelreiter.*
  - (*d*) *Else von der Tanne.*
- (3) For supplementary and outside reading:
  - (*a*) *Der Fluch der Schoenheit.*
  - (*b*) *Leberecht Huehnchen.*
  - (*c*) *Peter Moors Fahrt nach Suedwest.*
  - (*d*) *Eulenpfingsten.*
  - (*e*) *Das Verlorene Paradies.*
  - (*f*) *Das Holzknechthaus.*

The above texts are suggested by way of indicating character and degree of difficulty of the reading material for this year. There is no intention on the part of the committee to limit the choice of texts or to prescribe the order in which texts should be read.

Teachers desiring suggestions regarding texts to be used in each of the four years should consult the bulletins issued by the University of Wisconsin ("The High School Course in German") and the University of California ("A Four Year Course in German"); the New York Syllabus for High Schools; Minima for German; and other similar sources.

SYLLABUS OF A FOUR-YEAR COURSE IN SPANISH FOR HIGH SCHOOLS

FIRST-YEAR SPANISH

Your committee recommends from the very beginning the use of the direct method concerning things in the classroom and in ordinary life outside the classroom and the teaching in the same way of abstract words of very general use.

Pronunciation

Your committee does not recommend much use of phonetic symbols in the teaching of pronunciation at this stage of the work. The Castilian is preferable to any other pronunciation. No slovenly work should be tolerated at any stage of the student's development. One of the best helps in pronunciation is the memorization of short stories or short poems. When the pupil has a few of these in memory, he will have standards of pronunciation that he will turn to subconsciously when in doubt

Grammar

Verbs.

The three auxiliary verbs, *ser*, *estar*, and *haber;* a few irregular verbs, such as *tener*, *poner*, *hacer*, *decir*, *ir*, *morir*, *ver*, *volver*, *traer*, *dar*, *querer*, *saber*, *pedir*, *servir*, *dormir*, *sentir*, *perder*, and *jugar*.

The teacher should avoid making the difference between *ser* and *estar* too scientific at the beginning. Pass lightly at first, making the student feel the difference by means of pictures or humorous remarks. For instance: if a student says, *Soy sentado*, the teacher might answer, *Ud. es sentado. Muy bien. Entonces le diré: Buenos días, señor Sentado.* Then go back to it and explain the reason for the use of *ser* and *estar* in the reading.

All verbs taught in the first year should be taught in the present indicative, past absolute, past indefinite, future, imperfect indicative, and the present subjunctive used for the imperative. Special attention should be paid to the various uses of the imperfect indicative.

How to Use the Grammar

Very slowly in the beginning. The committee's experience is that in order to obtain the best results not more than one lesson of the average grammar now on the market should be gone over in one week and this practice should be continued for at least six weeks. The progress will be more rapid after the first six weeks or two months, and the entire morphology as outlined in our preliminary statement should be covered in skeletonized form during the first year.

Reading

The reading for the first year should consist of from 75 to 100 pages.

How to Use the Reader

Begin the reader the last of the second month. Read the piece to the class in Spanish. It will do no harm for the teacher to translate the entire passage to the class, either before or after reading it in Spanish. In any case the student should then be required to read it carefully in the original while the teacher constantly corrects pronunciation, attention being given not only to the correct pronunciation of the individual word but also to the correct pronunciation of the breath group. The piece will then be given to the class to study and will be the basis for:

(*a*) Conversation (by means of questions and answers in Spanish). (*b*) Dictation. (*c*) Composition-reproduction at board.

By composition-reproduction the committee means that students are sent to the board and sentences in English based on the piece studied and read are given offhand for them to reproduce in Spanish, the class being called upon to correct the mistakes.

Dictation

The importance of dictation in teaching Spanish cannot be too much emphasized. It should begin as soon as the reader is taken up and should deal with the lessons in the reader and the points of grammar studied previously. The sentences should be very clear and not too long. At the outset, five or six sentences will be enough, the number being increased later to ten or twelve.

SECOND-YEAR SPANISH

Grammar

Review rapidly the grammar of the first year before taking up the new work of the second year. Special stress should be put on the place of the object pronouns: their usual place in the ordinary sentences, and their place after the infinitive, the present participle, and the affirmative imperative. Also stress the reflexive verbs with which the students have already become acquainted in the reading. Additional irregular verbs must be taught. The forms of the subjunctive will be taught, but the regular and exhaustive drill in their use will be reserved for the beginning of the third year. The teacher should endeavor first to give the pupil a feeling for the subjunctive, showing its use in subordinate clauses and driving that home with repeated drill at the board of easy, clear sentences illustrating the use of the subjunctive in the present and the perfect tenses.

The same recommendations for the use of the grammar, reader, and dictation are made for the second year as for the first year.

Reading

The reading for the second year should consist of from 150 to 200 pages.

THIRD-YEAR SPANISH

Grammar

Whichever may have been the grammar method used by the teacher in covering the work of the first two years (we refer in particular to the two methods suggested in the beginning of this report), this third year should be devoted to a careful and painstaking study of the principles of syntax. Of course, at the outset a rapid review of morphology will be necessary to freshen the students' memory. In order that they may get the systematic exposition of syntax that becomes necessary at this point of the work, great care should be taken in the selection of the grammar to be used. It should contain a logical and thorough exposition of the principles of Spanish syntax, with copious examples and good reference lists for the regimen of verbs. The exercises should naturally be connected passages illustrating the points involved.

Each lesson in the exposition of syntax should be presented by the teacher before the students work on it at home.

The work of composition-reproduction of the reading matter in the classroom, by means of drill at the board and through the study and reproduction of dictation, should be continued throughout the third year.

Reading

Some easy Spanish plays may be used for outside reading or for memorization, and actually played in the classroom, the parts being distributed so as to enable each pupil to recite. This will be found a pleasant and useful drill.

The reading for the third year should be from 250 to 300 pages, 200 of which may be assigned for class work and 50 to 100 for outside reading and report.

Fourth-Year Spanish

Grammar

The grammar used in the third year for the exposition of syntactical principles should be the reference book of the fourth year; and the practice in composition should be given by means of a very carefully graded advanced composition and conversation book. There should be extensive practice in the making of abstracts of the reading done both in class and out, and in the reproduction in Spanish prose of certain passages of poetry that may have been read. The pupils will sometimes find it interesting to put into Spanish the introductory material at the beginning of their textbooks.

Pronunciation

Pronunciation should not have been neglected at any stage of the work, and during this year the pupils ought to be able to put what one might almost call the finishing touches on their ability to read intelligently the original Spanish text.

Reading

In the fourth year the reading should be from 400 to 450 pages. Of these pages, 250 may very well be done in class, and the remainder may then be given for outside reading and report. As every pupil in fourth-year work ought to possess a good dictionary, the choice of texts is less limited than it would be for the work of previous years.

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